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**OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**



**Suggestions for the
Secondary-School Principals**

SERVICE ORGAN FOR AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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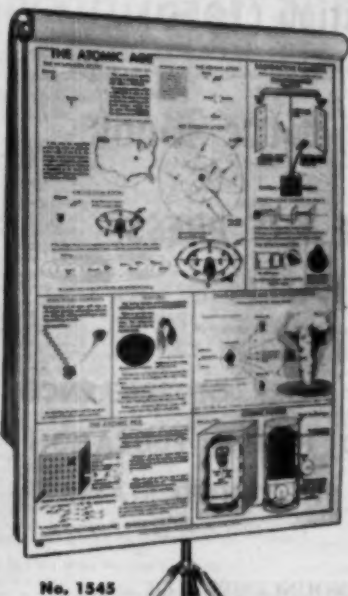
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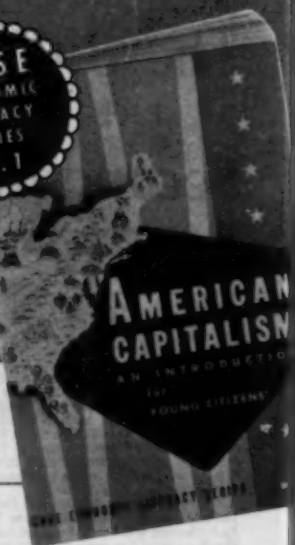
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The Place of Science and Mathematics in the Comprehensive Secondary-School Program

Recommended Curriculum Sequence in Science and Mathematics
for Junior and Senior High-School Grades

INTRODUCTION

THE process of preparing this statement of recommendations has taken a year. First, a tentative statement was prepared by a group of national leaders in the field of science and mathematics to be submitted for discussion by principals attending the 42nd Annual Convention in Indianapolis. As a result of the deliberation of these principals, the statement underwent several revisions. It now appears in final revision and is believed to represent the best judgment of thousands of secondary-school leaders throughout the nation.

The three parts of the statement include recommendations on (1) the nature of the comprehensive secondary-school program and services, (2) the sequence of science and mathematics study for the junior high-school grades and (3) the sequence for senior high-school grades.

The Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development¹ officially adopted these recommendations and the Executive Committee officially approved them, June 10, 1958.

PART I

WE BELIEVE IN THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

We believe in the comprehensive secondary school because it best fulfills the American ideal of adequate educational opportunities for all youth.

We believe in this fundamental principle: general basic education for all secondary-school youth plus provision for specialized education for each according to ability and interest.

We believe that each school community has an obligation to provide an adequate program of education for all youth with special attention to factors inherent in the changing needs of our society, such as:

¹Dalmas F. Miller, *Principal*, University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia—*Chairman*; Eldon F. Boyd, *Principal*, Morningside High School, Inglewood, California; Charles E. Manwiller, *Director of Curriculum Development and Research*, Pittsburgh Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Paul W. Pinckney, *Principal*, Oakland High School, Oakland, California; Theodore D. Rice, *Professor of Education*, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan; Woodrow W. Wilkerson, *Director, Division of Secondary Education*, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia; and Wilford H. Woody, *Principal*, West High School, Denver, Colorado.

1. The need for all Americans to have an adequate general education sufficiently comprehensive and broad to enable each to maintain a proper balance in all fields of learning, so that youth may become not only skilled and competent in their post-school occupational and professional lives, but also active in the duties and responsibilities of participating citizens in our democracy.

2. The need for giving attention to the deepening demands of life in our technological world, especially as it relates to the fields of science and mathematics in our educational program.

3. The need for improving the quality of secondary education in harmony with the development of intellectual capacities and interests of all American youth.

4. The need for providing guidance and counseling services to all youth so that each may prepare to take his rightful place as a well-adjusted, useful, and productive citizen in our world, particularly as it applies to careers in the professions, business, industry, and government.

5. The need for a school organization flexible enough to capitalize on the greatest educational potential in each youth.

THE RELATION OF THE CURRICULUM TO OUR CULTURE

The broad purposes of American education are intertwined with our purposes as a people, but, if our schools are to serve our people most effectively, the curriculum must change in response to changes in our culture. In a static society, a static school system is good enough; a society as dynamic as ours can progress only if its schools are equally dynamic and continuously adaptable.

Since the earliest days of public education in this country, we have recognized the need to relate the curriculum to the demands of citizenship, for we have felt that the future of our nation depends upon men and women who are committed to democracy and competent to participate in it. This emphasis is as necessary today as it has been in the past; but the rapid expansion of technology now requires of all citizens literacy and competence in science and mathematics.

The implications of this situation bear upon the work of every pupil and every teacher. Whereas once the requirements of society could be met by educating a small fraction of the population in science and mathematics, we must now undertake to prepare a much larger proportion for vocations in which these subjects are prerequisites. At the same time, we must recognize the need to strengthen the education of all students in order to enable them to participate intelligently and responsibly in a world in which social policies must increasingly take into account the impact of scientific knowledge and technological skill.

Not only must the schools improve programs for the education of gifted students, but also equal attention must be given to strengthening the offerings for average and below average pupils. The sheer fact is that the current shortage of manpower at every level of competence, except the very lowest, places a new and higher value on the universality of American education.

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The emerging needs of our national security require a continuing and expanding emphasis on quality in the secondary-school program. This means that we have to do our part to meet the demands of our industrial economy for highly skilled scientists and engineers and also for semi-skilled and semi-professional technicians. This is a tremendous assignment. The secondary school must continue to find ways to challenge the potential in each pupil and to encourage him to work towards his capacity.

We believe that the proportion of students who can profit from education in more advanced science and mathematics is limited. Less able students should be given courses with more emphasis on practical rather than abstract applications. However, those students of demonstrated talent and interest should be encouraged to pursue advanced study that may lead to career choices in science or mathematics.

It is important to maintain a balance in the secondary-school program. The demands for increased emphasis in the quality of our instructional program in science and mathematics must not detract from the accent on English, social studies, foreign languages, and other important areas of study. At the same time, we recognize our responsibility to review the entire program of studies to determine the extent to which each provides essential content in effective education. Improvement in the quality of the secondary-school program cannot be achieved by maintaining the *status quo* in curriculum.

The demands on secondary schools will require high educational leadership on the part of principals and administrators, who will have to make decisions on meeting the new demands and will have to resist sacrifice of the features of our present educational programs essential to life in a democracy.

THE IMPORTANCE OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING SERVICES

By 1965 there will be approximately 700,000 fewer young men aged 25-34 in the labor force than there were in 1955, while the group of men 25-44 will remain at about the same level. At the same time our population will sharply increase and, we hope, our standard of living will continue to rise. The combination of these factors makes obvious the need to train to the optimum each member of the "lean generation."

This means that guidance and counseling have a key job to do. First, it means that guidance can be used to make sure that each youth stays in school as long as he can benefit by formal education. Second, it means that guidance can be used to help each capable youth to select those subjects which "leave the door open" to post-high-school education. Third, it means that guidance can be used to encourage those youth to take courses in science and mathematics who heretofore have been uninterested or unwilling to do so, particularly girls.

FLEXIBILITY IN THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAMS

The curriculum challenges we face require new creative approaches to the internal organization of the secondary school and its relations to other levels of education. The traditional and frequently arbitrary time elements which now define the typical schedule of courses and classes make it difficult to program youth through efficient and appropriate sequences of learning. The emphasis upon time spent in a classroom needs to be replaced by behavioral evidence of skill, knowledge, and competence.

The period of attendance in any grade sequence of our school systems, though still based upon maturity, may better provide for a variety of rates of progress, allowing for maximum learning for each student within each school. The rate of progress within each subject field must be made increasingly flexible and for many students will include newer material which has traditionally been deferred for later consideration.

The ingenuity of administrators responsible for coordinating space, teachers, students, and time faces a new challenge. The development of the schedule of classes, the groupings of students, the sequential organization of subject matter, and the methods of teaching within classrooms must be restudied in the light of the tasks facing the secondary school.

PART II

Junior High School

OVER-ALL STATEMENT

1. Because of the demands made upon schools by our society, there is much public insistence that schools update their science and mathematics programs to adapt to the technological facts of everyday living in the second half of the Twentieth Century. Many schools have begun to do this; others are preparing to do so. As this is likely to be a continuing process, schools cannot remain complacent and defensive about their role in preparing youth to understand better the technological world of today and tomorrow.
2. Programs in science and mathematics should be developed and carried on as part of a continuous program beginning in the elementary school and extending through senior high school.
3. These programs will provide a variety of offerings in science and mathematics ranging in purpose and perspective from basic functional concepts to advanced theory. Although it is essential that no student be permitted to avoid a responsibility for some study of how science and mathematics will affect his life, he must be counseled and urged to select only those science and mathematics subjects that will best challenge his capacities and interests and satisfy his plans for the future. To this end, it is necessary for schools to *have or develop* broad and effective guidance and testing services and to *use them as* a major basis for determining a student's program of studies. The

best way to schedule students into science and mathematics, or other areas, is *via* counseling and guidance; but schools are aware that young people may not be, and often are not, mature enough to make wise decisions for their own benefit.

4. In science and mathematics in junior high schools, the importance of exploration should be recognized. Attempts to identify talented pupils should begin as soon as possible and should continue from elementary through secondary school. Those pupils who have potentiality should be encouraged to continue with advanced courses as preparation for a possible career in which their science and mathematics talents may make a particular contribution.
5. Teachers of science and mathematics should have broad and thorough preparation in their subject areas *and* in knowledge and understanding of early adolescent behavior so that they may teach junior high-school pupils in a challenging, interesting way.
6. Teachers of science and mathematics should be encouraged to increase and upgrade their knowledge of *modern* science and mathematics through in-service education, seminars, and university courses.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS

Recommendations

1. All normal pupils in grades 7, 8, and 9 should be encouraged to study some form of mathematics in each grade.
2. The amount of time given to mathematics in each grade may be flexible. But enough time—at least three hours a week—should be given to emphasize functional or theoretical mathematics as a basic subject.
3. All pupils cannot be expected to proceed at the same rate in mathematics. To all extent possible, they should be challenged to accomplish as much as they can. The most capable pupils can complete the existing mathematics program in grades 7 and 8 in one year. Thus, they can begin the study of more advanced mathematics in the 9th grade, or mathematics normally taken in grade 10.
4. Most pupils will take two full years to accomplish the mathematics of the 7th and 8th grades. Pupils of lower ability in mathematics may take more years to accomplish the work of grades 7 and 8.
5. The content of the mathematics program in grades 7-9 will be determined by administrators, subject specialists, and teachers at the appropriate level. The content may vary according to the ability and aptitude of the pupils.
6. Mathematics for pupils in grade 7 will ordinarily include major attention to the extension of arithmetic skills and knowledge with considerable attention to problem solving and introduction to informal geometry; for those in grade 8, there will be further attention

to arithmetic skills and knowledge with some introduction to algebra and continuation of attention to informal geometry. For pupils who are capable of profiting, the work of grade 9 would require the study of algebra.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SCIENCE

Recommendations

1. All normal pupils in grades 7, 8, and 9 should be encouraged to study some form of science in each grade.
2. The amount of time given to science in each grade may be flexible. But enough time—at least three hours per week—should be given to emphasize science as a basic subject.
3. All pupils cannot be expected to proceed at the same rate in science. To all extent possible, they should be challenged to accomplish as much as they can. The most capable pupils can complete the existing science program in grades 7 and 8 in one year. Thus, they can begin the study of advanced science in grade 9, or science normally taken in grade 10.
4. The content of the science program in grades 7-9 will be determined by administrators, subject specialists, and the teachers at the appropriate level. The content may vary according to the ability and aptitude of the pupils.
5. Science study in grades 7-9 should build upon the program of science in the elementary grades. Science for pupils in grades 7-9 should stress areas of science that make greatest impact on their current life and surroundings. In junior high school, more attention should be given to the conceptual rather than the descriptive approach to science.
6. Adequate facilities for laboratory experiences appropriate to junior high-school science study are essential.

PART III

Senior High School

OVER-ALL STATEMENT

1. Because of the demands made upon schools by our society, there is much public insistence that schools update their science and mathematics programs to adapt to the technological facts of everyday living in the second half of the Twentieth Century. Many schools have begun to do this; others are preparing to do so. As this is likely to be a continuing process, schools cannot remain complacent and defensive about their role in preparing youth to understand better the technological world of today and tomorrow.
2. Programs in science and mathematics should be developed and carried on as part of a continuous program beginning in the elementary school and extending into the senior high school.

3. Science and mathematics offerings in senior high-school grades will include programs in general education and in specialized education with a recommended sequence in the latter. How much and what kind of science and mathematics each student should study depends on his educational objectives, as clarified by counseling and testing. It is essential that every student be strongly advised to take some course in science and mathematics, even if only for one year. The best way to schedule students into science and mathematics, or other areas, is *via* counseling and guidance; but schools are aware that young people may not be, and often are not, mature enough to make wise decisions for their own benefit.
4. It is recommended that advanced courses in science and mathematics be made available without regard to the smallness of the class enrollment. In very small schools or where it is impossible to provide advanced instruction to two or three students, the use of correspondence courses, resource persons in the district, independent supervised study, and other approaches can be employed.
5. Sufficient flexibility for course selection, particularly in advanced courses, should be provided without regard to regular grade placement if the student has a demonstrated ability.
6. Teachers of science and mathematics should be encouraged to increase and upgrade their knowledge of *modern* science and mathematics through in-service education, seminars, and university courses.

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS

Recommendations

1. The study of mathematics is recommended for those students in grades 10, 11, and 12 who have sufficient capacity and interest to assure achievement.
2. The sequences in this study will include the development of general concepts, skills, and the understanding of plane and solid geometry; intermediate and some advanced algebra; advanced mathematics, including trigonometry and elementary analysis.
3. The most capable students can proceed at a faster rate in mathematics. For them, the study of mathematics indicated above may be accomplished in less than three years so that, in schools of sufficient size, they will be given the opportunity of studying in the 12th grade the mathematics normally given in the first year of college, such as analytical geometry and calculus, thus making possible advanced placement in that subject in college or university.
4. In the national interest, it is desirable to offer advanced study in mathematics to capable and interested students regardless of the smallness of the class.

5. Students not pursuing any of the above sequences should be encouraged to take at least a one-year course, preferably in grade 10. This one-year course would emphasize general mathematics concepts and their practical applications.

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SCIENCE

Recommendations

1. The study of science is recommended for those students in grades 10, 11, and 12 who have sufficient capacity and interest to assure achievement.
2. The sequences in this study will include biological science, chemistry, and physics.
3. The most capable students can proceed at a faster rate in science. For them, the study of science indicated above may be accomplished in less than three years so that, in schools of sufficient size, they will be given the opportunity of studying in the 12th grade advanced physics, advanced chemistry, or advanced biological science, thus making possible advanced placement in science in college or university.
4. In the national interest, it is desirable to offer advanced study in science to capable and interested students regardless of the smallness of the class.
5. Students not pursuing any of the above sequences should be encouraged to take at least a one-year general course in biological, chemical, or physical science that would emphasize functional concepts and practical applications.

DEPENDENTS' SCHOOLS

The Army, the Navy, and the Air Force at present are maintaining 161 elementary schools and thirty-two high schools for approximately seventy thousand dependent children in Europe and Africa. Of the thirty-two high schools, twenty-nine were accredited by the North Central Association for the 1956-57 school year. The Army maintains seventeen high schools, the Air Force (USAFE, SAC, and MATS) maintains thirteen, and the Navy maintains two. These high schools range in size from thirty-eight pupils in Zaragoza, Spain, to 807 pupils in Frankfurt, Germany. The average enrollment of dependents' high schools in Europe and Africa is 277 pupils. The thirty-two high schools are located in Germany, England, France, Italy, Spain, Turkey, Morocco, Libya, and Portugal (Azores).—*The North Central Association Quarterly*, April, 1958, page 304.

Approved List of National Contests and Activities for 1958-59

THE List of Approved National Contests and Activities (all non-athletic) for 1958-59 is published by the Committee on National Contests and Activities¹ of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals as a professional service to all secondary schools. It was prepared after careful study of the many applications received from sponsors in business, industry, government, and the professions. The Committee has placed on this List only those national contests and activities that meet the high standards of the recommended Criteria outlined below.

The Committee urges high-school principals to sanction school participation only in approved national contests and activities and thereby assure professional control. The Committee reaffirms its previous decision that the number of approved national contests and activities must be judiciously limited; that they must adhere strictly to the Criteria; and that the number of essay contests ought to be reduced.

During the coming year the Committee plans to publish a statement detailing its reasons for taking the position that essay contests do not contribute significantly to good education. In addition, it plans to take a position against the approval of contests which require restrictive rather than general participation.

The secondary-school principal is earnestly requested to familiarize himself with this entire brochure by reading carefully the five parts—(A) Recommendations for Participation, (B) General Recommendations, (C) Criteria, (D) List of Approved National Contests, and (E) List of Approved National Activities.

A. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PARTICIPATING IN NATIONAL CONTESTS AND ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS

It Is Recommended:

1. *Policy for All Secondary Schools*

That all secondary schools take a firm and consistent position against participating in unapproved national contests or activities.

2. *School Participation*

- (a) *On a national basis*—That a school confine its participation to those national contests that are currently placed on the Approved List by the Committee on National Contests and Activities for the years indicated.

¹The Committee on National Contests and Activities: Albert Willis, *Executive Secretary*, Illinois High School Association, 11 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois; *Chairman*: Robert V. Cresswell, *Principal*, David B. Oliver High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; O. T. Freeman, *Principal*, Wichita Falls Senior High School, Wichita Falls, Texas; John O. Fry, *Secondary Curriculum Consultant*, Hamilton Public Schools, Hamilton, Ohio; R. C. Guy, *Principal*, Hutchinson Senior High School, Hutchinson, Kansas; Raymond S. Locke, *Principal*, Barrington High School, Barrington, Rhode Island.

- (b) *On a state basis*—That schools limit their participation in contests and activities sponsored by their own state high-school organizations within the state in preference to any activities sponsored by other agencies. Many states evaluate and approve state-wide or local contests and activities, and approved lists are available from officers of state high-school organizations.

3. *Student Participation*

- (a) That, if a school participates in any contest or activity outside the state, no pupil should be absent from school more than five school days for a single contest or activity.
- (b) That an exception for an individual contestant be made if successive steps are required to determine the winner of a national or regional contest.
- (c) That no high school should enter more than two regional or two national contests per year in which ten or more pupils from that school are involved initially, except scholarship contests.
- (d) That no individual pupil should participate in more than one contest in each of the eight categories on the Approved List except where scholarships are involved.

4. *Essay Contests*

That a school should not participate in more than one essay and forensic contest each semester. (Fewer than five pupils in each school shall not be considered official school participation.) Participating in essay contests is generally regarded as of questionable educational value because it is extremely difficult to guard against plagiarism and dishonest collaboration. Therefore, we make these recommendations:

- (a) Do not promote any essay contest. Announce or post notice of consent *only*.
- (b) A staff member should not judge any essay.
- (c) A staff member should not be obligated to use class periods for directing the developing and writing of any essay, unless it fits into an existing unit of instruction.

B. GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The Committee suggests that all school administrators give consideration to these recommendations:

1. Before a secondary school agrees to participate in any national contest or activity, the principal should check this List to find out whether it is approved. If the contest or activity is not approved, *do not* schedule it in your school.
2. Approval by the Committee on National Contests and Activities does not give the sponsor the right to operate in any school. The

school itself will determine the contests and activities in which to take part.

3. Sponsors of essay contests should have all essays read and judged outside the school staff by judges selected by the sponsors.
4. In regard to college scholarships, no sponsor should place any cash award directly in the hands of any boy or girl. The award should be placed with the treasurer of the institution selected by the boy or girl. If the boy or girl fails to attend the institution, the award will then be available for the next qualified applicant.

C. CRITERIA

School administrators agree that many contests offered to schools are of doubtful educational value. To help determine which contests or activities are educationally desirable, the Committee on National Contests and Activities has prepared the following Criteria. In applying these Criteria, the Committee aims to select for approval only those contests and activities of highest educational value and greatest potential worth for high-school youth.

1. *Primary Objective*

The first purpose of a national contest or activity is to benefit high-school youth in educational, civic, social, and ethical development.

2. *Types of Contests Preferred*

Contests that make it possible for individual students to work out contributions, solutions, and creations by their own efforts are preferred. Essay contests may invite dishonest collaboration; therefore, they are not considered desirable. Scholarship tests, achievement tests, and contests involving original work by the contestant are preferred.

3. *Purposes*

The contest or activity must be educationally sound, worthy, and timely. It should be stimulating to student and school, and a desirable activity for both.

4. *Values*

- a. The contest or activity should be well planned and have adequate, objective evaluation.
- b. The contest must emphasize a potentiality for good citizenship, high moral standards, and intellectual competence.
- c. The subject of the contest or activity must not be commercial, controversial, sectarian, or concerned with propaganda.

5. *Restrictions*

- a. No contestant may be excluded because of race, color, or creed.
- b. The activity must not place undue burdens on students, teachers, or school.
- c. The student or school should not be required to pay an entry fee or purchase materials to participate.

- d. Teachers should not judge or select contestants in any stage of a contest.
 - e. The contest or activity must not require frequent absence of participants from school.
 - f. Ordinarily, out-of-state travel should be limited to one student. Exception may be made if scholarships are substantial.
 - g. Contests or activities should not duplicate those sponsored by other organizations.
 - h. An organization should not conduct more than one national contest or activity in the same school year.
6. *Awards and Prizes*
- a. The contest or activity should be philanthropic.
 - b. Scholarships and educational trips are regarded as the most desirable types of awards.
 - c. Awards and prizes must be adequate in number and amount.
7. *Sponsorship*
- a. The organization sponsoring the contest or activity must be engaged in a creditable or acceptable enterprise regardless of the kind and amount of prizes offered, and must not use the contest or activity as a "front" for advertising a company name or product.

OTHER CONDITIONS AND REQUIREMENTS

1. If participation in a contest or activity is offered to students and schools in five or more states, it will be regarded as a national contest or activity and application for placement on the Approved List should be made to the Committee on National Contests and Activities.
2. If participation is offered to students and schools in only one state or less than five states, separate applications should be directed to the state association of secondary-school principals, or to the state activities association. Names of officers of state secondary-school principals' associations may be secured from the Committee.
3. Participation by any school in any contest or activity on the Approved List is voluntary.
4. Organizations whose contests or activities are placed on the Approved List must include this statement on their publications or applications: "The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has placed this Contest (or this Activity) on the Approved List of National Contests and Activities for 1958-59." Further, they should inform the Committee of the names of the national and state winners of contests or activities as soon as announcements are made to the press.
5. Applications for placing national contests or activities on the Approved List must be filed with the Committee on National Contests and Activities on or before April 1, for consideration for the 1959-60 school year.

D. APPROVED NATIONAL CONTESTS (NON-ATHLETIC)
FOR 1958-59

SPONSORING AGENCY	TYPE OF CONTEST APPROVED	YEARS ON APPROVED LIST	CLOSING DATE OF REGISTRATION
<i>Agriculture Contests</i>			
Future Farmers of America, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Wash. 25, D. C.	Livestock judging and convention contest	9	October
National Junior Vegetable Growers Association, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass.	Vegetable demonstration, production, and marketing	10	December 1
New Farmers of America, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Wash. 25, D. C.	Livestock judging and convention contest	6	June 30
<i>Art Contests</i>			
American Automobile Association, 1712 G St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Traffic safety poster contest	14	March 1
American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian St., Indianapolis, Ind.	Poppy poster contest	14	June
Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State St., Rochester, N. Y.	Photographic contest	13	March 31
Fisher Body Division, General Motors Corporation, Detroit 2, Mich.	Craftsman's guild	13	May
General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Framed painting	5	April
National Soap Sculpture Committee, 160 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.	National soap sculpture competition	2	April 30
<i>Editorial and Writing Contests</i>			
Advertising Federation of America, 250 West 57th St., New York 19, N. Y.	Essay contest	12	April 17
Atlantic Monthly, 8 Arlington St., Boston 16, Mass.	Essay, story, and poetry contest	15	March 12
Civitan International, Comer Building, Birmingham 3, Alabama	Essay contest	5	March 15
Ladies Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars, 406 West 34th St., Kansas City 11, Mo.	Essay contest	14	March
National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week, U. S. Department of Labor, Wash. 25, D. C.	Essay contest	11	March 15
National Sales Executive, 136 East 57th St., New York 22, N. Y.	Essay contest	11	March

SPONSORING AGENCY	TYPE OF CONTEST APPROVED	YEARS ON APPROVED LIST	CLOSING DATE OF REGISTRATION
National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.	School press project	11	December 20
Our Times, American Education Publications, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.	Current affairs and editorial contest	2	January 31
Propeller Club of the United States, 17 Battery Place, New York, N. Y.	Essay contest	13	March 31

Examinations and Scholarships

American Association for the United Nations, Inc., 345 East 46th St., New York 17, N. Y.	Examination	10	February 15
American Association of Physics Teachers, 335 East 45th St., New York 17, N. Y.	Scholarship awards	1	April
American Association of Teachers of French, Davidson College, Davidson, N. C.	French examination	11	March
American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, DePauw University, Greencastle, Ind.	National Spanish examination	2	February 1
American Veterans of World War II, 1710 Rhode Island Avenue, N. W., Wash., D. C.	Scholarships for children of deceased or disabled veterans	4	February 20
Association for Promotion of Study of Latin, Elizabeth, N. J.	Latin examination	11	March 31
Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, 635 St. Paul Street, Rochester 2, N. Y.	Science award and scholarship program	13	March 1
College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th St., New York 27, N. Y.	Scholarship qualifying test	1	October 17
Consolidated Freightways, Inc., 431 Burgess Drive, Menlo Park, Calif.	Scholarship awards	7	March 30
Elks National Foundation Trustées, 16 Court St., Boston 8, Mass.	Most valuable student award	11	March 1
General Mills, Inc., 9200 Wayzata Boulevard, Minneapolis, Minn.	Betty Crocker search	5	November 1
General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich.	Scholarship program	4	December 31
Latham Foundation for the Promotion of Humane Education, Latham Square Building, Oakland 12, Calif.	Poster contest	4	March 2

SPONSORING AGENCY	TYPE OF CONTEST APPROVED	YEARS ON APPROVED LIST	CLOSING DATE OF REGISTRATION
Metropolitan New York Section of the Mathematical Association of America, Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, N. Y.	Multiple choice questions	2	February 1
National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Ill.	NCTE achievement awards	1	May
National Merit Scholarships, 1580 Sherman Avenue, Evanston, Ill.	Qualifying test for merit scholarships	4	April 1
National Restaurant Association, 1530 North Lake Shore Drive, Chicago 10, Ill.	Scholarship awards	5	February 1
Quill and Scroll Society, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa	Political quiz	8	May 1
Regular Common Carrier Conference, 1424 Sixteenth St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Transportation scholarship award	3	March 15
Scholarship Board of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Scholarship qualifying test	14	October 1
Science Service, 1719 N Street, N. W., Wash. 6 D. C.	Science talent search; national science fair	16	December 27
Thom McAn Company 25 West 43rd St., New York 36, N. Y.	Thom McAn leadership awards	4	March 15
<i>Home Economics and Industrial Arts</i>			
Ford Motor Company, The American Road, Dearborn, Mich.	Industrial arts awards	9	June 25
National Red Cherry Institute, 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, Ill.	Baking contest	9	January 15
Pillsbury Mills, Inc., Minneapolis 2, Minn.	School bake-off program	1	February 27
The Wool Bureau, 16 West 46th St., New York 36, N. Y.	Home sewing contest	4	September-June

Speech Contests

Improved Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks of the World, 1915 Fourteenth St., N. W., Wash., D. C.	Oratorical contest	7	June
U. S. Junior Chamber of Commerce, Boulder Park, Box 7, Tulsa 2, Okla.	Script writing contest	1	February

SPONSORING AGENCY	TYPE OF CONTEST APPROVED	YEARS ON APPROVED LIST	CLOSING DATE OF REGISTRATION
National Americanism Committee of the American Legion, P. O. Box 1055, Indianapolis, Ind.	Oratorical contest	16	April
National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters; Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers Association; and U. S. Junior Chamber of Commerce, 1771 N St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Voice of democracy radio speech contest	10	mid-November
National Forensic League, Ripon, Wisc.	Forensic contests Student congress	14	May 10
Supreme Lodge, Knights of Pythias, 420 First Avenue, N. E., Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Oratorical contest	8	April 30

Miscellaneous

American Motorists Insurance Company, 4750 North Sheridan Road, Chicago 40, Ill.	Auto safety contest	2	April 15
Grand Lodge—Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks of the USA, Elks Memorial Building, 2750 Lakeview Avenue, Chicago, Ill.	Youth leadership	4	February 1
Daughters of American Revolution, 1776 D Street, N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Good citizen award	10	March
Future Scientists of America, National Science Teachers Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Wash. 6, D. C.	Science or math projects	5	March 15
Odd Fellows and Rebekahs of America, 2703 East Lake Street, Minneapolis 6, Minn.	United Nations pilgrimages	4	December 31
Scholastic Magazine, Inc., 33 West 42nd St., New York 36, N. Y.	Art, writing, and photography	16	March

E. APPROVED LIST OF NATIONAL ACTIVITIES FOR 1958-59

(No Contests Included)

The Committee classifies conventions, meetings, work sessions, and educational travel (where no competition for awards exists) as Activities.

The Committee does not look with favor on any national activities that conflict with the regular school year and it assumes that adequate and qualified adult supervision will be provided in the administration of these activities.

SPONSORING ORGANIZATION	MAIN OFFICE	YEARS ON APPROVED	
		LIST	WHEN HELD
American Junior Red Cross	Washington 13, D. C.	6	June 1-3
Boys' Nation	Indianapolis, Indiana	6	July 18-25
Distributive Education Clubs of America	Washington 6, D. C.	6	March
Freedoms Foundation	Valley Forge, Penna.	3	September-June
Future Business Leaders of America	Washington 6, D. C.	6	June 14-16
Future Homemakers of America	Washington 25, D. C.	5	July 7-11
Junior Classical League	Ypsilanti, Michigan	3	August 17-21
Key Club International	Chicago, Illinois	6	June 28-July 1
Music Educators National Conference	Washington, D. C.	2	Spring
National Association of Student Councils	Washington 6, D. C.	6	June 21-25
National 4-H Club Awards Program	Washington 25, D. C.	7	December June 14-20
National Scholastic Press Association	Minneapolis 14, Minn.	6	August 22-23
New Homemakers of America	Washington 25, D. C.	5	June 9-13
The Williamsburg Student Burgeses	Williamsburg, Va.	2	February

CENTRAL CELEBRATES CENTENNIAL

Central High School, one of Detroit's venerable institutions of learning, is celebrating its centennial this year. The school's founding one hundred years ago marked the beginning of public secondary education in Michigan. On August 30, 1958, twenty-three boys and Professor Henry Chaney, the teacher-principal, "took seats" in the new Detroit High School. (The name Central High School was adopted in 1895.) "School" was actually the second floor of a small frame building. Female students and the first woman faculty member were admitted in 1860, when more space was acquired.

From its beginning, Central has pioneered in developing curricula to meet the needs of a metropolitan population. For many years, its primary emphasis was excellent college preparation. Now it offers well-rounded programs in business and vocational education as well. Two public events are planned to commemorate the anniversary: an historical panorama presented by the 1958 senior class and a banquet at which speakers and entertainers will be distinguished alumni. Educators, friends, and loyal alumni join in congratulating Detroit's "mother" high school. Miss Bertha M. Robinson is the present principal.

Social Education and the Academically Talented

MILTON M. KLEIN

THE frenzied hunt for educated talent which Russia's zooming sputniks set off about a year ago has slowed down to a snail's pace. The quarry seems far more elusive than originally supposed; brainpower cannot be developed by quite the same type of "crash program" that may produce a missile. Wherever sustained interest continues, however, in the problem of seeking out and cultivating the intellectual talent that the age of space demands, it is concentrated largely in the areas of science and mathematics. The proposed Federal scholarship program would reward students who promise to pursue scientific careers; summer institutes galore have been organized to refresh and retrain high-school teachers of natural sciences; curriculum committees of college professors and secondary-school teachers are busily redrafting courses of study in physics and mathematics to meet the requirements of the nuclear era.

The case for such urgent attention to scientific education is simply put: the problems of the space age will be solved in the physics laboratories, and mathematics is the key to national survival in the battle for the future that has already begun. Now there is scarcely a literate person alive who will not concede that science has come to play an increasingly vital role in modern civilization and that its study deserves careful consideration in the classroom. But it is patent nonsense to clamor incessantly that our survival is keyed solely to the teaching of science in every elementary school and advanced mathematics in every high school, or that the progress of our civilization will be determined exclusively by the number of Ph.D.'s turned out each year in chemistry, physics, and mathematics. Our civilization is far more complex than a mathematical equation, and society's needs are hardly limited to the production of more technicians, engineers, and nuclear experts in assembly-line fashion.

The blunt truth is that despite the cries of shortages in science, the United States has made enormous gains in the field of technology during the present century while our most abject failures have been in the realm of social engineering and human relations. We may well need more natural scientists, but we are also desperately short of trained leadership in the humanities, in foreign languages, and in the social sciences. The perils of being unable to supply our NATO allies with up-to-date weapons are real enough, but is it much less hazardous that we

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are unable to supply nine of these countries with American ambassadors who can speak their native tongues? Our political leaders today may be short on knowledge of electronics, but are they any longer on deep understanding of the problems of society, on penetrating insight into the mainsprings of human conduct, and on real comprehension of the historical forces that have worked to create our present international position?

There are still frontiers to be conquered, but they are not exclusively scientific. The problems of civil rights, intergroup relations, housing, crime, and education are scarcely less compelling or challenging than those of air defense or interplanetary travel. If we learn merely to conquer the physical universe without learning how to get along with ourselves, we may be simply acquiring the weapons with which to hasten our own destruction.

Within the scientific community, young engineers are among the first to admit that sound training in the other disciplines is a requisite for professional success, and that scientific education without accompanying education in the liberal arts is imbalanced and dangerous. When about four thousand engineering graduates of Purdue University were queried recently on the goals they considered most important in the general education of engineers, they ranked first the ability "to express one's thoughts effectively"; second, the acquisition of skills and habits of "critical and constructive thinking"; and third, knowledge of how "to get along with people." In evaluating the specific goals of engineering education, the Purdue graduates emphasized the importance of "straight thinking" and habits of logical organization, both of which the social studies are pre-eminently capable of developing.

Despite the close interrelationship between the natural and the social sciences, and despite the pressing need for creative leadership in the social field, secondary-school programs for gifted and talented students have been largely preoccupied with mathematics and the physical sciences. A recent survey by the National Council for the Social Studies¹ discloses that in the social studies, high schools are not doing much more for the academically talented student today than they were a decade or two ago. The blame is not entirely the community's, nor does it stem solely from the attention that the Soviet sputnik has drawn to our technological deficiencies. Disagreement among teachers of the social studies themselves helps to explain the relatively limited energy that has been expended on programs for the social education of talented students.

CURRENT PROGRAMS AND THEIR CRITICS

The most common administrative modification for enlarging learning opportunities for academically talented students is the creation of special classes for them in particular subject areas where they have demonstrated

¹*The Social Education of the Academically Talented*, No. 10, Curriculum Series. Wash., D.C.: The National Council for the Social Studies. 1958. 111 pp. \$2.00.

superior capacity or attainment. But while the practice is praised by teachers of mathematics, science, and even English, it is vigorously condemned by some teachers of social studies. They argue that while purely skill subjects may be taught in separate ability subgroups, the special aims of social education require just the reverse, that is the mingling of students with diverse intellectual endowments in the same classroom. The social studies class, it is asserted, is the place where students of all ability levels share the common experiences which contribute to the development of broadly based social consciousness and to the recognition of individual worth and dignity. The socializing influence exerted by the social studies class of heterogeneous character is all the more important precisely because of the divisive nature of those other subjects in which students are separated on the basis of intellectual capacity. By throwing students together for their social education, it is contended, any tendencies toward intellectual "elitism" on the part of the gifted are obviated.

These are weak grounds, however, for inhibiting the development of special programs for the cultivation of talent in the social studies. The basic assumption that enforced "rubbing of noses" with slower learning students will give the gifted youth a greater appreciation of social democracy is arguable. It is more likely that, by placing the superior student in a learning situation in which his constant aspirations for intellectual self-realization are frustrated by the demands of his less able fellows, he will become more rather than less intolerant of academic inferiority. The notion that social competence requires individuals to share identical experiences and to "adjust" to each other has already been translated into a corrupting and dangerous philosophy of social acceptance and rigid conformity that is positively detrimental to the discovery and nurture of really distinctive talent. We have already had so much emphasis on "togetherness" that even the heads of large business organizations are beginning to complain of their inability to get any truly creative and original ideas from their junior executives. How can the gifted student secure training in imaginative and independent thinking about social problems if he is compelled constantly to adjust to the level of the lowest common denominator of the classroom?

The fears that the segregation of bright students may breed social snobbery and intellectual arrogance are based more upon presumptive evidence than on the results of empirical research. Experimental studies are too few to be convincing, but those school systems that have had extensive experience with "honor" classes—such as New York City and Portland, Oregon, to name but a few—report no serious problems of social adjustment arising from the creation of such classes. Rarely are gifted students separated entirely from their classmates; they share common experiences in cafeterias, gymnasiums, and study halls, and in extracurricular activities like the student council, athletics, and after-school clubs. The conventional stereotype of the football hero rather

than the scholar as the popular choice for class president ignores the more typical elective choice who is both socially acceptable and academically talented. Permitting the intellectually gifted student to exploit his own brains in an honor class does not deprive him of the opportunity of also making himself socially popular with his classmates.

In the long run, the most fruitful kind of "adjustment" that the truly gifted person can make to society is to develop his own talents and to place them at the disposal of the community; and if this requires that he be permitted to travel along paths somewhat different from the rest of his fellows, a wise society will ease the way for him.

Still another administrative variation that appears desirable in the education of academically talented students is to allow him to accelerate his high-school program as fast as his native ability will permit. Acceleration has long remained unpopular among teachers and administrators, yet schools have been employing the practice in one form or another for several decades. Among the most outspoken critics of such abbreviated school programs for the gifted are, again, teachers of social studies; and once again the objections are couched in familiar terms. By speeding the student up the educational ladder, it is said, we not only squeeze valuable intellectual experiences out of his secondary schooling, but we also push him into a social situation where the age difference between himself and his older classmates inevitably invites personal maladjustment and emotional problems.

When bright students themselves are given the opportunity to fore-shorten their high-school careers, however, they accept it eagerly; and they, their parents, and the colleges which receive them applaud this opportunity. A recent undertaking in accelerated education of the gifted has confirmed the findings of Lewis M. Terman a decade ago that the alleged maladjustments created by such speeded-up schooling are exaggerated. In 1951, the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education initiated a series of scholarships to permit students of high academic ability to enter college at the end of their tenth or eleventh grade. Systematic evaluation of their progress four years later has revealed that the "Ford Scholars" suffered neither intellectually nor socially in the process. They participated just as extensively in the extracurricular life of their colleges as their older classmates who entered *via* the usual admission procedures; they won a disproportionately high share of academic honors and awards at graduation; and on standardized tests of competence in the social sciences, administered during their sophomore year by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, they consistently outscored a group of comparison students who had benefitted from the extra year of social studies instruction in the high school. Social studies teachers who insist that their classrooms provide experiences, either social or intellectual, that, once missed, are irretrievable, will have to provide demonstrable evidence to prove it; and high schools that hold bright students to the traditional lockstep of the slowest on the ground

that they require further social maturation will have to explain why the maturation takes place so well outside of the high school.

The most preferred form of special assistance for the academically talented student among teachers of social studies is "enrichment," that is the provision of broadening and deepening learning experiences inside the regular classroom. The goal is indeed a commendable one, and the intrinsic merit of enrichment is scarcely open to question, but the difficulty of devising concrete applications of the principle for the classroom and of evaluating the outcomes make enrichment one of the least precise and most elusive objects of education. Ironically, the difficulty is greatest in the social studies; and all too often what passes for enrichment are the assignment of additional pages in the same textbooks; supplemental reports on the same topics; and scrapbooks, workbooks, or dioramas only slightly more sophisticated than the "projects" assigned on the elementary-school level. The distinction between elementary and advanced content in the social studies is not readily made, and the multiplication of elementary-type assignments more often punishes the gifted student than rewards him. Rarely is the youth with superior endowment offered the opportunity of pursuing independent research in a large area, of handling abstract ideas, of conceptualizing, formulating generalizations, and drawing conclusions of his own.

Within the last few years a gratifying, though small, number of schools have initiated programs designed to permit academically talented students to think and to study independently and to relate the findings of the social studies to those of the other intellectual disciplines. Such efforts have taken the form of "seminars" in which a small group of students of high ability explore a wide range of social problems in breadth and depth under the guidance of outstanding teachers but without the constrictions of either prescribed texts or predefined courses of study. The dividends that may be reaped by such an investment of student-teacher time and energy are perhaps most effectively and eloquently summed up in the words of a member of one such class in a San Francisco high school, who said: "I love it. For the first time since I've been in high school, I've had a chance to breathe. I haven't been tied down by a textbook, or tests, or the teacher."

CONCLUSION

The advent of the age of space demands more not less education in the social studies. As science reduces the geographical barriers among the peoples of the earth, the social sciences must chart the ways by which they can live with each other. As technology provides the material foundations of the utopian society, the social sciences must shape its human outlines. As the frontiers of knowledge are steadily extended, the lines that differentiate the intellectual disciplines become more blurred and the areas of overlapping more numerous. The trained leadership demanded by the world ahead is not the leadership of either natural scientists or of

social scientists but of whole men who can view and tackle human problems in their entirety.

Let us continue to cultivate the scientific and mathematical talents of our brightest students, but not at the expense of their social education. The goal of secondary education is not the training of scientists, but the training of citizens who can understand science as a tool for social reconstruction and progress. Only by systematically and aggressively developing *all* the talents of our ablest students can we assure ourselves of the social leadership that we so desperately need. If the scientific knowledge we acquire cannot be put to socially constructive use, it had better remain undiscovered. The age of tomorrow toward which we move with such buoyant anticipation is, after all, not science's; it is man's.

EDUCATION CAN DOUBLE A MAN'S SALARY

An adult male with four years of college will, on the average, earn more than twice as much in a year as a man with less than an elementary school education and \$1,500 a year more than a high-school graduate according to Lyman V. Ginger, former president of the National Education Association. Dr. Ginger cited Census Bureau statistics that showed the median income in 1956 of men 35 to 54 years old who were year-round full-time workers was \$3,025 for those with less than eight years of school; \$4,182 for those who completed eight years; \$4,700 for three years of high school; \$5,179 for completion of high school; \$5,763 for three years of college; and \$6,625 for four or more years of college. "For the individual, education represents earning power and a better material life," Dr. Ginger said. "Education is also economic power for his community and for his employer. Comparisons of income and education levels by states," Dr. Ginger pointed out, "typically show a high correlation between the state's ranking in median school years completed and its ranking on per-capita personal income. This is particularly striking at the bottom of the scale: in 1950, the 10 lowest-ranking states on school years completed were also the 10 with the lowest per-capita personal incomes." The estimated lifetime income for men with no formal education is \$58,000; 1-4 years, \$72,000; 5-7 years, \$93,000; 8 years, \$116,000; 1-3 years of high school, \$135,000; four years of high school, \$165,000; 1-3 years of college, \$190,000; and four or more years of college, \$268,000.

"For the employer," Dr. Ginger said, "a more highly educated labor force is an absolute essential. Automation demands more, not less, education. For the nation, education represents the most fundamental of all sources of economic growth. In our preoccupation with horsepower and nuclear power, we cannot afford to lose sight of the rich returns offered by investments in brainpower."

The Activities of the Assistant Principal in Secondary Schools

RICHARD W. JARRETT

DURING the last few decades, a trend toward specialization has been evident in local secondary-school administration. Larger enrollments have forced schools to improve methods and facilities of handling personnel, materials, and public relations, and to broaden curricular offerings. Each new administrative duty added to the responsibility of the principal, however, has tended to draw him farther and farther away from his primary function of improving the instructional effectiveness of the school.

The increasing complexity of school populations, organizations, and curricula has created a need for additional administrative personnel to aid the principal in his duties. The position of assistant principal has emerged in answer to this urgent need, much as did that of principal a century ago. The development of the role of assistant principal has apparently followed no systematic pattern, depending rather upon expediency than upon careful planning. His duties have varied greatly, depending on the size and organizational structure of the school, the philosophy of the school system, and the individual principal's interests and capabilities.

This study was undertaken in an effort to define the position of assistant principal, especially with respect to function and status, and to duties and responsibilities. Answers to the following questions were sought: (1) What is the general duty status of assistant principals in secondary schools in cities whose populations exceed 400,000? (2) What are the specific duties and responsibilities of secondary-school assistant principals in the City of Los Angeles with respect to administration of the educational program, pupil personnel services, administration of co-curricular activities, school management, community relations, and professional and in-service training? (3) What is the relative emphasis given to each activity in which he engages? (4) What are the general characteristics of the activities in which he engages? (5) What is the best organizational pattern for the assistant principalship according to the judgments of a jury of educational specialists?

Specific interest centered in the results of three surveys, each conducted by means of a separate questionnaire: (1) an intensive study of the

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duties and responsibilities of the position of vice-principal in one large metropolitan school system as reported by 116 Los Angeles vice-principals; (2) the general duty status of assistant principals in 23 of the 25 largest cities of the United States; and (3) judgments of a panel of ten specialists in educational administration who established criteria for the study.

FINDINGS

The greatest involvement of Los Angeles vice-principals was found to occur in the general areas of the administration of professional and in-service training, pupil personnel services, and the administration of co-curricular activities. In order of frequency of participation, the following duty- and responsibility-areas were of greatest importance: (1) pupil adjustment, (2) pupils who vary from the norm, (3) general supervision of departments, (4) professional in-service training, (5) special school activities, (6) school safety program, (7) supervision of instruction, (8) administrative functions, (9) social and special interest activities, (10) developing morale of staff, (11) parent group activities, (12) individual differences among pupils, (13) pupil services, (14) school functions, (15) school development, (16) special services, and (17) athletic program.

Conversely, the duty-areas of least vice-principal involvement were: (1) administration of classified personnel, (2) plant management, (3) curriculum adaptation, (4) school supplies and equipment, (5) instructional materials, (6) school district activities, (7) supervision of specific departments, (8) school-wide activities, (9) membership in community organizations, (10) educational services, and (11) facilities of instruction.

A comparison of the results of the surveys of Los Angeles vice-principals and of the largest city school systems of the nation showed a striking similarity in the percentage of time estimated to be spent by assistant principals in the six major responsibility classifications:

<i>Responsibility classification</i>	<i>Los Angeles vice- principals</i>	<i>23 Largest cities</i>
Administration of the educational program	19	25
Pupil personnel services	45	45
Administration of co-curricular activities	13	12
School management	12	8
Community relations	6	4
Professional and in-service training	5	6

The findings based on data obtained from the survey of the largest school systems in the nation included:

1. Four different titles were commonly used for the position under study, that most frequently employed being "assistant principal."

2. The norm bases most commonly used for assigning an assistant principal to a high school were the number of students and/or the number of teachers. A few schools considered special problems or difficulties that increased the administrative load.

3. The number of assistant principals assigned varied greatly and no trend or pattern could be observed. Some school systems made liberal use of quasi-administrative personnel in an effort to relieve administrative loads and offset the pressing need for more assistant principals.

4. In a great majority of schools studied, requirements for eligibility to the assistant principalship included (a) successful teaching experience, and (b) possession of a master's degree.

5. Responsibility for in-service training of newly assigned assistant principals was usually assumed by the superintendent and/or his staff, and by the school principal.

6. A diversity of practice existed in the number of months for which an assistant principal was employed many preferring the eleven- or twelve-month assignment. The median practice was ten months; the average 10.3 months.

7. In the great majority of large cities, the next regular promotional position for the assistant principal was the principalship of a secondary school.

8. The individual school principal invariably exercised a free hand in the assignment of administrative duties and responsibilities to his assistant principals.

9. The majority of large-city school systems were found to have no official duty or responsibility statement, or job description for the position of assistant principal.

10. In general, size of school did not affect the classification or salary of the assistant principal.

11. In almost two thirds of the school systems studied, advanced graduate work had no influence on classification or salary of the assistant principal.

12. Very little has been done, apparently, to develop clear-cut lines of responsibility and/or authority of assistant principals. In two thirds of the school systems studied, no formal designation of responsibility to the assistant principal was made for the areas of curriculum adaptation, instructional aids and services, training of newly assigned personnel, plant management, or community relations.

13. In half of the school systems studied, the assistant principal was delegated official responsibility for school supplies and equipment, and for co-curricular activities.

14. Respondent superintendents of schools recommended that a realignment of duties be made for assistant principals, and that the size of administrative staffs be increased. A trend was noted in the direction of greater emphasis on participation in the instructional program by assistant principals.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There is need for clarification of the role of assistant principal, his status, qualifications, and exact function.

2. The adoption of an official duty and responsibility statement for the position of assistant principal would aid in the solution of the problem of overlapping jurisdictions and assignments.

3. There is need for the adoption of a single title for the position, that of "assistant principal."

4. The assistant principalship is the proper internship for the position of principal of a secondary school.

5. A norm needs to be established for the number of assistant principals to be assigned to a secondary school, based primarily upon student enrollments, but allowing for other factors which modify the work load.

6. A ten-months' assignment is inadequate for the demands of the position.

7. Greater participation by the assistant principal is needed in the supervision of departments, and in the over-all supervision of instruction, as directed by the principal.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations were based on findings of the two surveys. They were also found to be acceptable to at least seven of ten specialists who helped to formulate criteria for the investigation.

1. The title of the administrative officer immediately below the secondary-school principal should be standardized as an assistant principal.

2. The academic requirements for assistant principal should be the same as those for principal.

3. The position of assistant principal should be considered the proper internship for the principalship.

4. School systems should formulate and officially adopt a general duty and responsibility statement for the position of assistant principal.

5. In-service training for newly appointed assistant principals should be conducted by the superintendent and/or his staff.

6. The principal should exercise a free hand in assigning specific administrative duties and responsibilities to assistant principals.

7. Regular secondary schools should employ a minimum of two assistant principals when enrollments reach 1100 students; and three assistant principals when they reach 2100 students.

8. An additional assistant principal should be assigned where special problems increase administrative loads, as in the case of double sessions, extended day classes, or underprivileged areas.

9. Assistant principals should be assigned on an eleven-month basis.

10. Duties of the assistant principal should be so clearly defined as to avoid any duplication of assignment.

11. The following major areas of responsibility should be delegated individually to the assistant principal: curriculum and instruction, student services, student activities, and school management.

SCIENCE ATTRACTS

Science-minded students exhibited an astonishing total of 468,952 science projects, 87.5 per cent more than last year, in home town science fairs preliminary to this year's regional or state fairs leading to the National Science Fair in Flint, Michigan, May 7 through 10. Projections based on area reports from two thirds of the regional fairs, show that more than four million people, an increase of 213.5 per cent were interested enough in the younger generation's ability in science to desert favorite TV programs and spring gardening in favor of visiting the science fairs in their communities.

A record number of regional and state fairs were affiliated with the National Science Fair administered by Science Clubs of America, an activity of Science Service. A total of 146 fairs sent 281 finalists to Flint. Each finalist competed against the other winners from 39 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and the new fairs in Hawaii, Japan, and Army Dependents' Schools in Germany and France.

More than 30,000 people had visited the National Science Fair exhibit area at Flint Junior College before the counters jammed, preventing further tabulation. In many localities, Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Masons, Elks, Civitan, Knights of Columbus, Chambers of Commerce Exchange Clubs, and similar civic and fraternal organizations are supporting and encouraging the science fairs in their communities as a significant part of their service activities.

The roster of judges at the national fair included 92 specialists in scientific fields. By actual count 1,204 man hours were devoted to judging the students projects. According to the calculations by Watson Davis, Director of Science Service, 1719 N Street N.W., Washington 6, D. C., this works out to four hours, 17 minutes, per finalist—a job that would have taken one lone judge about thirty 40-hour weeks. The Armed Services and the American Medical Association were represented on the Board of Judges by 21 officers and doctors who came to the fair to choose and honor exhibits in their particular fields. Future fairs are anticipated with increasing interest by those concerned with the supply of scientists, engineers, and technicians. Plans already are underway for the tenth annual event to be held in Hartford, Conn., May 6 through 9, 1959, and the eleventh scheduled for Indianapolis, Ind., May 11 through 14, 1960.

Television as a Powerful Factor in Education

ALEXANDER J. STODDARD

May 27, 1958

TELEVISION is the most powerful means of communication man has yet devised. In a little more than a decade it has had and is having a startling impact on life in America. It has produced profound changes in our habits, manners, and customs—and in our very culture—that have been and are nothing short of revolutionary. We may differ as to the “whether” and the “how” of television. But there is general agreement that it is a force that must be considered frankly and seriously in any concern about education. This is true whether education is carried on formally in school or college or whether it proceeds informally on the basis of chance and unplanned experience.

Anyone who has witnessed the effects of television on our people, young and old—and who has not done so—knows that it has been, is, and is likely to continue to be the outstanding educational challenge of our day. Because its potentialities in the informal education of our whole people are so great, there may develop some attempts to try to control in some way the scope and form of its use, in the interest of the general welfare.

It is unfortunate that the expression “educational television” has come into rather general usage. It suggests that there may be some television that is not educational. Any use of television is educational, one way or another, good or bad, large or small, constructive or destructive, effective or not effective, and so on, just as is true of books or any other means of conveying ideas. It is suggested that the expression “educational television” be changed to “the use of television in education.” This address will be confined to some potentialities on the use of television in the formal processes of education, as organized and administered deliberately in our school and colleges.

A large part of teaching consists in stimulating learners of all ages to carry on the acts of perception and thinking. Each learner must do this for himself. The role of the teacher is to provoke, to incite, to help, to encourage, to suggest ways and means, to make the content and processes more effective. Regardless of how efficient the teacher is, the learner still

Alexander J. Stoddard is TV Consultant for the Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York City. Dr. Stoddard gave this address before the Conference on Educational Television, Tuesday afternoon, May 27, 1958. This Conference was under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Education in cooperation with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters.

must do his own perceiving and thinking or no learning takes place for him.

It has long been recognized that learning is done better, or more effectively, with a good teacher than with a poor one, with good books, maps, globes, apparatus, and other facilities than with poor resources. This is due to the fact that the better the resources are, the more willingly and effectively does the learner carry on both phases of the learning process. It is also very likely that the more potent the perception step is, the more surely is the learner apt to do something about the raw materials of learning involved in his gathered sensations; that is, to consummate his learning in the act of thinking.

Assuming that the material presented over television is well planned from the standpoint of content and effectively arranged and presented from the standpoint of the recognized principles of teaching, there is no doubt but that a television lesson can be a powerful force in the perception stage of learning. It is also possible that it can be so powerful as to go a long way towards involving the learner in the other stage of learning—thinking, or doing something about what has been seen and heard. Possibly no other means that have yet been used in teaching have been or are as effective in both phases of the learning act as is television when properly and capably used and exploited by the teacher.

Experience to date with the use of television as a powerful resource in teaching indicates that, when television programs are used as an integral part of the lesson plan by the classroom teacher, the results are generally equal to or better than is true where traditional resources only are available. It is possible that the advantages with the use of television might be even more evident if the comparison of achievement between television usage and non-usage could be on the basis of all the content taught with television-usage rather than on the basis of only what is taught in the non-television-usage situation. Anyhow, it has already been determined that television can be a very important and potent asset or resource for the regular teacher with a regular class, whether on the school or college level.

It has further been determined that television can be used as the direct teaching agency at the college level and also at the school level. However, at the school level the teacher in the classroom is probably more necessary. This is true because the learner must develop progressively, as part of his education, the ability to participate more and more effectively in the follow-up of his learning experience, whether through television or in any other manner of experience. As he matures he becomes more and more capable of doing the thinking step more effectively. That is, one of the products of education is the development of the tendency and ability to perceive and think "on your own" without so much stimulus and direction or other help by the teacher.

There are experiments under way at the present time in Nebraska and Oklahoma to determine the effectiveness of using television directly

in teaching certain subjects in small high schools where, generally, qualified teachers are not available for those subjects. In the Oklahoma experiment, there is practically no formal or controlled follow-up of the lesson over television, other than some occasional contracts between students and project supervisors or local teachers who may provide some help. That is, there is no regular teaching service present for the follow-up. The learning process is largely involved in seeing and hearing the television lessons and doing some assigned readings and other suggested activities. In Nebraska the television teaching is joined with correspondence work that covers to some extent the follow-up usually involved in the classroom recitations, discussions, testing, and give-and-take between students and teacher.

The experiments in these two states are part of a large experimental program known as "The National Program in the Use of Television in the Public Schools." Some evaluation results from Oklahoma and Nebraska are now available from the first year of the experiment ending June 30, 1958. However, more information will come as the experiment continues during the next school year.

There are thousands of small high schools over America, where young people are denied full high-school educational opportunity because of lack of resources due to size of the school. These experiments in Nebraska and Oklahoma may provide some information that cannot be ignored or discounted in dealing with the relation between where a boy or girl lives and his chance of securing a full and adequate high-school education, and possibly a college education later. Probably some of our greatest waste in human resources has its roots in these inadequate, small high schools. And possibly television can provide part of the solution to this major problem in the American scheme of education.

There are many who believe, with considerable support in the history of the use of sound pictures and radio in education, that television will not be used generally in the educational programs of our schools and colleges unless it can be exploited in the area of its great strength, numbers. Therefore, an extensive experiment is under way to determine whether large classes of students or pupils, at all ages, can be taught as effectively, less effectively, or more effectively, where the teacher with a *large class* uses televised lessons as a powerful resource around which the classroom teaching is developed and carried on.

During the year closing June 30, 1958, elementary, junior high, and senior high schools in Oklahoma City, Wichita, Jefferson County (Kentucky), Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Detroit, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Atlanta, Miami, and nineteen cities in North Carolina, experimented with the teaching of large classes, from 70-500 in size, with one or more teachers in the classroom and using regularly televised lessons as a powerful resource in the teaching content and process. The experiment will be continued this year, with an increase in the number of participating schools, pupils, and school systems. Some tentative information is avail-

able as to the results from the first year of the project. The following are some of the subjective conclusions that seem already to be emerging from the experiment:

1. Large classes can be administered effectively as part of the school program if there is reason and purpose for doing so.

2. The techniques of teaching large classes are not the same as those used in teaching small classes.

3. Discipline problems have not increased with class size.

4. Attention during telecasts and during classroom follow-up is attained more effectively than anticipated.

5. The ability on the part of pupils to take notes efficiently is enhanced.

6. Teachers can and do come to know their pupils, both as persons and as to their individual progress in class and in the learning situation.

7. As techniques for teaching large classes are developed and used, difficulties of student participation, reciting, testing, discussion among pupils and between pupils and teachers, remedial teaching, individual needs, varying rate and content, and so on can be and are being resolved to a very satisfactory degree and extent.

8. There is an atmosphere in the large class that gives an unanticipated zest both to teachers and pupils that provides a challenging learning condition not always present in a small class.

9. Pupils generally assume more personal responsibility in carrying on various phases of learning activities in these large class situations—possibly they develop desirable habits and attitudes that more than offset much of the “spoon-feeding” that characterizes altogether too much of our small class situations where teachers may sometimes be too available. Collateral reading, involving library and other research, by individuals and groups is increased.

10. Some phases of subject-matter seem to be more adaptable to large-class-television teaching than others, but no final conclusions are available as yet along this line.

11. Since television is such a powerful communication resource, the amount and quality of curriculum content already involved in this large-class-television procedure (and the potential in that direction for the future) are having a stirring influence on rethinking much of the curriculum scope and content and quality as television breaks the curriculum boundaries set by traditional limitations on communication.

12. The increasing quality of television lessons is encouraging. Competent studio teachers can be recruited from our teaching ranks and trained effectively for this new kind of teaching service.

13. The qualities and characteristics of successful studio teachers or large-class teachers are not just the same as those of regular class teachers. Some special abilities are involved that must be discovered and corresponding training provided.

14. The high quality of much of the studio teaching, as well as large-class teaching, is having a salutary effect on teaching competence generally.

15. Studio teaching and large-class teaching are not proving too burdensome as teachers learn how to adjust to new duties and responsibilities involved. There is an offsetting challenge to these new situations that is proving to be quite compensating.

Many of these conclusions are not final by any means. Opinions may change as more experience is gained. The experiment is only a year old. But there is a very obvious enthusiasm on the part of those engaged in the experiment. Teachers and school systems ask that the experiment continue and that they continue to have parts in it. It is heartening to know that our great profession is willing to experiment on this large scale—the school systems involved are matching foundation funds to carry the cost of the experiment—to determine whether television can be used to improve education in America. The amount and quality of learning will be the final determining factors in reaching a decision concerning the effectiveness of television in the educational program. Let us follow these and other studies in this field fearlessly and with open minds.

It may be that television can be so harnessed as to make possible the redeployment of some of our personnel and facilities in providing an equally effective educational program at less cost or a more effective program at little or no increase in cost. This might make possible a redeployment of some of our educational resources to accomplish some objectives not now attainable. The schools need more counseling service, more mental health service, smaller classes in some phases of the curriculum—even teachers' salaries could be improved!

The schools of tomorrow may be different from today in that the traditional uniformity of class size and classrooms may be changed so that there may be many sizes of classes and classrooms, depending on type of subject matter taught and the use of television as a powerful partner in the teaching of many types of large classes.

It may be that television will come into the schools in such manner as to multiply greatly the effectiveness of many teachers and increase the amount and quality of learning beyond anything heretofore attained. At least, an attempt is being made to find out whether this is possible.

Neither apathy nor prejudice nor complacency should discount in advance a thorough study of the potentialities of television in the educational program of our schools and colleges. There may be some better way of carrying on our educational program than the way in which it is now done. It would be strange if that were not so. We dare not hesitate to subject this program to continuous research and critical examination to find that better way.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Teacher Merit-Rating Plans

E. D. KENNEDY

THE reaction of many toward the subject of teacher merit-rating plans is revealed in statements such as these which have come to our attention recently: "Imperative but Impossible." "Did you ever try to skin a live tiger?" These reveal the frustration and the deep feeling which are aroused when the subject is mentioned. Is this a new idea? Has it been tried before? Was it successful? Who is raising the issue now? What are their motives? How can the situation be met on a professional level?

A clipping from a recent issue of the *Detroit Free Press* cites a report by the Illinois State Chamber of Commerce urging the adoption of incentive pay plans for superior teachers.

The Chamber, which studied so-called "merit" pay plans in schools throughout the country, contended: "It is inconsistent to emphasize the importance of the individual and then treat the teachers *en masse* salarywise, ignoring their individual contributions." The organization thus is following a growing trend towards treatment of the teacher as a professional individual.

Serious study in Michigan by citizen groups or organizations interested in education would do much—particularly in a time when school money must be spent wisely—to further extend the benefits of the important principle of superior pay for the superior teacher.

Incentive pay, "merit-rating," take your choice, there is little if any difference between them. The object may seem, to some, to be an honest effort actually to pay an adequate salary to a competent teacher. To others it may appear to be a way to reduce expenditures for education.

One Michigan school (Port Huron, Michigan) had been tantalized with a \$35,000 fund to be distributed on a merit or incentive pay plan. A committee struggled with the situation and reported a plan that will be "varied enough to attract teachers' interest on any level or in any degree of preparation." One author (Grosse Pointe, Michigan) rejects "automatic salary increases for a professional growth program." Another joint committee (East Lansing, Michigan) has developed a "career personnel policy" which is on a "trial run" complete with everything but the application of the salary differentiation. Classroom teacher, consultant, librarian, and administrator are provided for in the plan. These are but a few examples of what is going on in one state in this area of merit-rating. No doubt they may be multiplied many times over throughout the country.

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Considerable research is being carried on by many organizations, and groups which are trying to get at the basic facts in an objective and impartial manner. This is commendable and must be expanded. Not only applications to education are being studied, but business and industry as well where they have found that it is not a typical practice other than for developmental purposes. The value of money, by itself, as an incentive to increased quality and quantity of total group production has been shown to be limited.

"Two fundamental differences between the problems in industry and those in public education are: (1) In business and industry the problem often is to relate compensation to an immediate and measurable output. In public education the problem is to relate salaries to the attainment of long-range outcomes in human behavior to which teachers and many other educative influences contribute and against which a host of environmental factors are operating. (2) The professional nature of the teacher's work is such that the techniques applicable to the more routine operations in industry are not necessarily adapted to a teacher's work. The teacher, even when working individually, is still working in cooperation with other individuals toward the achievement of common goals." (New York State Teachers Association, *Teacher Merit and Teacher Salary*, 1957.)

Some advantages might be ascribed to merit-rating plans as follows:

1. Leads to cooperative study of an important personnel problem which may result in improved understanding.
2. Develops evaluative criteria for self-analysis.
3. Improves initial selection procedures for new staff members.
4. Attracts more competent young people to the profession.
5. Eliminates less effective persons.
6. Reveals new areas of essential study for the improvement of instruction and personnel policies.
7. Secures support for improved salary schedules on the part of laymen.

Disadvantages which seem to be generally acceptable to opponents of the plan include:

1. The impossibility of measurement of the qualities of superior teaching.
2. A common denominator does not exist between all branches of teaching.
3. Subjectivity of the rating process makes it ineffective.
4. Harmful effects on teaching stemming from the fact it undermines the foundations of morale through denial of increments.
5. Represents a false economy.
6. Creates professional jealousy.
7. Destroys the cooperative spirit which should exist between teachers and administrators.
8. Tends to keep people from entering the profession.
9. Violates sound principles of teaching. (Teacher-centered rather than pupil-centered).

10. Assumes agreement concerning good teaching and methods.
11. Tends to force conformity to pre-conceived ideas of some person or group of persons.
12. Discourages experimentation in teaching.
13. Allows for discrimination and injustices.
14. Reduces professionalism in teaching.
15. Serves as a means of giving a false impression to the community of the salaries which its teachers are actually receiving.
16. Inhibits cooperative discussion of salary matters between teacher groups and boards of education.

Dr. Howard R. Jones, professor of educational administration, University of Michigan, recently listed seven basic conditions which must be fulfilled before merit-rating for teachers will work.

1. There must be a basic salary schedule available to all teachers continuing in service which is at a professional level and which takes into consideration today's living standards and high costs.

2. There must be a willingness on the part of the instructional staff to assist in formulating the policies under which merit rating shall be initiated and a willingness to try a merit rating plan on an experimental basis.

3. The factors of competencies which are to be appraised must be clearly stipulated and understood by all parties, together with the procedures to be followed.

4. There must be an opportunity for all to qualify for higher salaries with no percentage restriction limiting increased salaries to a certain percentage of the teaching force.

5. Merit rating for salary purposes must be part of a larger plan for instructional improvements. The focus must be kept on the education of children and young people. The school system must have a comprehensive plan fostering in-service growth.

6. Administrators must set apart more time for working with teachers in improving the curriculum and in determining ways of appraising the outcome of instruction.

7. There must be definite provision for the periodic appraisal of the merit rating plan, its effectiveness and the attitudes it engenders.

There are fewer school systems employing a plan of merit rating today than 20 years ago. Much study is going on, but few schools are adopting such a plan. The study must and will continue. Research, experimentation, and discussion will expand. An open mind, an objective attitude, and a desire to reach a solution must obtain.

Exclusion of Pupils from Public Schools

HAROLD H. PUNKE

SINCE school boards have legal responsibility for maintaining public schools, they necessarily have power to make such rules and regulations as are required for school operation. Although public schools are intended for all persons of the district within a specified classification, frequently governed by age limits, the welfare of the school as a whole may demand that certain individuals within such classification be excluded. The grounds for excluding pupils have frequently been challenged in the courts, and questions concerning damages for wrongful exclusion have arisen.

In general, a pupil may be excluded for persistent violation of any reasonable rule that the board has set up for operating the school.¹ Moreover, if the welfare of the school demands, a pupil may be excluded when a specific board rule implies the situation on which exclusion is based.² It has also been held that in the absence of such board rule, the teacher may make necessary rules, or may exclude pupils in the best interest of the school even though no rule is violated.³ However, a board cannot arbitrarily expel a pupil without making some definite charge against him—regarding disobedience, misconduct, or something else that is inappropriate.⁴

When pupils are excluded from school, the courts look to the reasonableness of the rule or action taken by the teacher or school official.

1. SPECIFIC BASES FOR EXCLUDING CHILDREN FROM SCHOOL

Several bases or categories of reasons have appeared for excluding pupils from school.

a. *General misconduct.* In 1870 a Massachusetts court⁵ upheld the exclusion of a high-school pupil for misconduct—described in the allegation as “whispering, laughing, acts of playfulness and rudeness to other pupils, inattention to study, and conduct tending to cause confusion and

¹State v. Randall (1899), 79 Mo. App. 226; Byrd v. Bexley (1936), 263 Ky. 422, 90 S.W. 2d. 370; Hodgins v. Inhabitants of Rockport (1870), 105 Mass. 475; Bourne v. State (1892), 35 Neb. 1, 52 N.W. 710; Stevens v. Fassett (1847), 27 Me. (14 Shep.) 266.

²State v. Burton (1878), 45 Wis. 150, 30 Am. Rep. 706; State ex rel. Crain v. Hamilton (1890), 42 Mo. App. 24; State v. District Board (1908), 135 Wis. 619, 116 N.W. 232, 16 L.R.A. (N.S.) 730, 128 Am.St.Rep. 1050; Wooster v. Sunderland (1915), 27 Cal. App. 61, 148 P. 959. For a contrary holding, see Murphy v. Board of Directors (1870), 30 Iowa 429.

³State v. Randall (1899), 79 Mo. App. 226; State v. Burton (1878), 45 Wis. 150, 30 Am. Rep. 706; Davis v. City of Boston (1882), 123 Mass. 103.

⁴Cross v. Board of Trustees (1905), 121 Ky. 469, 28 Ky. Law Rep. 440, 89 S.W. 806.

⁵Hodgins v. Inhabitants of Rockport, 105 Mass. 475.

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distract the attention of other scholars from their studies and recitations." The pupil persisted in the misconduct after repeated admonitions by the teacher and school committee. The court said that the misconduct was not gross, mutinous, or outrageous, but said that it was within the discretion of the school committee to determine when the conduct of a pupil interfered with the discipline of the school. The exclusion was upheld.

A New York girl, Mary Jane,⁶ was suspended for creating a disturbance while the teacher was punishing another pupil. Mary made faces at the teacher. She also made a scratching noise on her slate while the teacher was holding a class recitation. Mary admitted part of the accusations, and the school trustees proposed to her that she say that she was sorry for whatever she had done that was wrong and that she would obey the orders of the school in the future. Her father also requested her to do as indicated. Her suspension for refusing to do so was upheld in court.

In the Randall case,⁷ Warren Beaty purposely ran against and wounded a smaller boy during the forenoon recess, and the teacher requested Warren to accompany the injured boy to the latter's home. When Warren refused, the teacher told him to take his books and go home. The board ordered that he take a whipping or be expelled. In upholding the disciplinary action against Warren, the court noted the duty of the teacher to do whatever was necessary to protect the safety of other pupils—so long as he required nothing that was opposed to law, board rule, or primary purpose of the school.

The Crain case⁸ was not governed by any specific board rule, although a statute empowered the board to expel a pupil "Where they become satisfied that the interests of the school require such expulsion." Young Crain, age seventeen, carried "brass knuckles" to school; spit tobacco juice on the floor, windows, stove, and coal scuttle; swore on the playground and instigated fights among smaller boys; puffed tobacco smoke from his pipe into the faces of other children when enroute home from school; lay in his seat and pretended to be asleep when he was supposed to be studying; and would hawk, spit, and scrape his feet on the floor when the teacher requested quiet during schoolroom hours. After conferring with the teacher, with Crain and his father, and with other students, the board expelled Crain. The court refused to reinstate him.

A nineteen-year-old Kentucky boy⁹ was a boarding student in a dormitory maintained by the high school. The superintendent had a rule that required all boys to be in their rooms by 7:00 P.M. At a later hour one night the superintendent found the boy (Bruce) in another boy's room. He ordered Bruce to go to his own room. Bruce was slow in responding, and the superintendent repeated the order. After Bruce got started, he announced that he would take his time, and headed for the

⁶Stephenson v. Hall (1852), 14 Bar. 222.

⁷State v. Randall (1899), 79 Mo. App. 226.

⁸State ex rel. Crain, v. Hamilton (1890), 42 Mo. App. 24.

⁹Byrd v. Begley (1906), 262 Ky. 422, 90 S.W. 2d. 370.

sleeping porch instead of his room. However, it was study time, not bed time. Somewhat later the superintendent returned and asked Bruce what he meant by saying he would take his time. An argument arose, and the superintendent sent Bruce out of the dormitory and told him not to return to school. One condition made later for Bruce's return was a promise to obey the rules and make an apology to the assembled students. Bruce and his father, seeking the boy's reinstatement in school, took the matter up with the county board of education—but the board refused to take action. The court considered the rule to be reasonable, in requiring boys to spend the evening in studying rather than in visiting. In upholding the rule, the court added: "Bruce, who was practically grown, had defied the authority of the superintendent and set a bad example for all the boys, and to permit him to return without an apology would necessarily encourage a spirit of insubordination and destroy the influence of the superintendent."

A Wisconsin teacher¹⁰ expelled a pupil for persistent misconduct. In rejecting the contention that only the board and not the teacher could expel a pupil, the court reasoned that the teacher was subordinate to the board rules, but added that there were many situations which were not governed by specific board rules and that a pupil might be so recalcitrant or an offense so serious as to require prompt action. The court observed: "In such a case, it seems absolutely essential to the welfare of the school that the teacher should have the power to suspend the offender at once from the privileges of the school; and he must necessarily decide for himself whether the case requires the remedy." The court added: "The teacher has in a proper case the inherent power to suspend a pupil from the privileges of his school, unless he has been deprived of the power by the affirmative action of the proper board."

A disciplinary situation was created in a Maine school¹¹ by a boy who was over twenty-one years old and had no legal right to force his acceptance as a scholar. An agent of the district helped the teacher forcibly remove the boy from the schoolhouse—because of disobedience. It was contended that since the boy was not legally a scholar, the teacher did not have authority to make him obey—that if he was a disturber of the school he should be prosecuted as such under appropriate statutes. The court looked upon the teacher as in possession of the schoolhouse, and clothed with necessary power to remove an intruder—regardless of any remedy that might be available through criminal procedure. The court recognized that the boy was not legally a scholar, but added that if he "does present himself as a pupil, is received and instructed by the master, he cannot claim the privilege and receive it, and at the same time be subject to none of the duties incident to a scholar."

b. *Excessive or unwarranted absence or tardiness.* School boards may make rules concerning promptness of enrolling pupils who are permitted

¹⁰State v. Burton (1878), 45 Wis. 160, 30 Am. Rep. 706.

¹¹Stevens v. Fassett (1847), 27 Me. (14 Shep.) 266.

to attend school but who are not old enough to be required by law to attend,¹² and concerning absence and tardiness of pupils who are enrolled.¹³ In the *Burdick* case,¹⁴ a board rule provided for the suspension of any pupil who was absent six half days within any four-week period—with two tardies counting as one absence, unless due to illness or other unavoidable cause. Two cases were joined in the suit. In one, a boy was absent to help his father care for shrubbery and cows, and in the other a girl was absent to accompany her parents on a visit. In upholding the suspension, the court reasoned that pupils could not make progress in their studies unless they were regular in attendance, and that irregularity in attendance on the part of some pupils interfered with the progress of those who attend regularly and arrive promptly. In challenging a similar board rule in Missouri,¹⁵ the plaintiff contended that "occasional" absence was solely a matter of parent and pupil—so long as the pupil behaved when at school, and that suspension was thwarting the purpose for which the public schools were established. In upholding the suspension, the court emphasized the injury of repeated absence and its demoralizing effect on the school—and added: "Taxes are not collected to pay teachers to sit in front of empty benches or to hunt up truant boys. Such absences, when without excuse, are the fault of the parents, whose business it is to see that the attendance of their child is regular, unless prevented by causes which will, of course, be an excuse under the rule now in question." In the *Fewkes* case,¹⁶ a girl was absent for two weeks, in violation of a board rule. Upon her return to school she admitted that she had not been ill. Both parents consented to her absence, but neither would give her a written excuse. Letters from the teacher and principal to the mother, explaining the board rule, and seeking a written excuse for the girl's absence, were not answered. The court upheld suspension of the girl.

In 1874 a Vermont priest requested the school committee to excuse Catholic children on holidays.¹⁷ The committee refused. The priest then claimed that, as a matter of right, Catholic parents could take their children out of school on such days. June 4 was a holyday, and on the preceding day several children asked the teacher if they would be excused the next day to attend church services. They were told that they would not be excused. By direction of priest and parents, several Catholic children were absent on June 4—for religious reasons. When they returned to school the next day, they were refused admittance and told that they could not return without assurance from their parents that in the future they would comply with school regulations. Several parents re-

¹²*Alvord v. Inhabitants of Chester* (1901), 180 Mass. 20 61 N.E. 263.

¹³*Churchill v. Fewkes* (1883), 13 Ill. App. (12 Bradw.) 520; *Burdick v. Babcock* (1871), 31 Iowa 562; *King v. Jefferson City School Board* (1880), 71 Mo. 628, 36 Am. Rep. 499; *Fertich v. Michener* (1887), 111 Ind. 472, 11 N.E. 608, 60 Am. Rep. 709; *Ferriter v. Tyler* (1876), 48 Vt. 444, 21 Am. Rep. 133.

¹⁴*Burdick v. Babcock* (1871), 31 Iowa 562.

¹⁵*King v. Jefferson City School Board* (1880), 71 Mo. 628, 36 Am. Rep. 499.

¹⁶*Churchill v. Fewkes* (1883), 13 Ill. App. (12 Bradw.) 520.

¹⁷*Ferriter v. Tyler* (1876), 48 Vt. 444, 21 Am. Rep. 133.

fused to give the assurance, and their children were suspended. In upholding the school committee, the court wrote an extended opinion—tracing developments since the “divine right” linkage between prince and priest, describing the chaos that would prevail at school if the holidays of all the numerous religious sects of the community were recognized as school holidays, and noting that Catholics were expected to perform their duties under the law on holidays the same as other citizens.

The reasonableness of a rule on tardiness was before the Supreme Court of Indiana in the *Michener* case.¹⁸ The first fifteen minutes of the school day were customarily devoted to “opening exercises,” and the superintendent had directed teachers to have tardy pupils remain in the hall or go to the principal’s office until opening exercises were over. The superintendent had suggested that teachers might lock their room doors to enforce the rule, but had not directed that they do so. The ten-year-old *Michener* girl was tardy one January morning when the temperature was eighteen degrees below zero, her teacher’s door was locked, and the janitor invited the girl to stand near the register in the hall where it was reasonably warm. She declined, apparently thinking that she needed her teacher’s permission in order to do so—and she had apparently forgotten about going to the principal’s office, if indeed she ever knew about it. After remaining in the hall for a few minutes, she noticed her feet becoming numb and cold—and started to return to her home, about a quarter mile away. Enroute home her feet became frost-bitten or frozen, causing pain and subsequent lameness. The court regarded tardiness as inimical to good school management, and said that tardy pupils ought not complain at being detained for a few minutes in some part of the building other than the classroom—until opening exercises were completed. However, the court reasoned that the enforcement of any rule must take into account the age, health, comfort, and mental and physical condition of the pupil, and also weather conditions if child exposure is involved. The court added:

A school regulation must therefore be not only reasonable in itself, but its enforcement must also be reasonable in the light of existing circumstances. The habit of locking the doors of the schoolroom during opening exercises, observed by appellee’s teacher, was not an unreasonable enforcement of the rule under consideration in moderate weather and under ordinary circumstances. But to so lock the doors on an extremely and unusually cold morning, without causing special care and attention to be given to the comfort of such pupils as might thereby be required to remain in some other part of the building, was undoubtedly both an unreasonable and a negligent, and hence an improper, enforcement of the rule.

A similar tardiness rule was rejected by the court in an early Illinois case.¹⁹ Because of redistricting, the plaintiff’s children had to go 1½ miles to get to school. He objected to a rule which denied his children

¹⁸*Fertich v. Michener* (1887), 111 Ind. 472, 11 N.E. 605, 60 Am. Rep. 709.

¹⁹*Thompson v. Beaver* (1872), 63 Ill. 353.

admission to the schoolhouse in inclement weather, if they were a little tardy. The court said: "What are reasonable rules is a question of law, and we do not hesitate to declare that a rule that would bar the doors of the schoolhouse against little children, who had come from so great a distance in the cold weather, for no other reason than that they were a few minutes tardy, is unreasonable, and therefore unlawful. In its practical operation it amounts to little less than wanton cruelty."

c. *Swearing, and obscene language or writing.* Swearing was one of the charges supporting expulsion from school in the Crain case,²⁰ previously reviewed. In the Helston case,²¹ suspension resulted from the use of profane and obscene language to board members, and refusal to give information concerning who was guilty of wanton and obscene writing on the schoolhouse—in letters large enough to be read across the street. The 14-year-old boy in question said another boy had given him the name of the boy who did it, but the boy in question would give no information on the matter. When he appeared before the board, he persisted in refusing to give information—and also refused to ask his mother to come before the board for a conference on the matter, as the board requested. He then used profane and obscene epithets to the board, and went away. In upholding the boy's suspension from school, the court reasoned that defacement of a schoolhouse with obscene writing was an intolerable offense, justifying radical measures to prevent a repetition; that it was the responsibility of every good citizen to state to proper authorities what he may know about the perpetration of any crime or misdemeanor—aside from self-incrimination; and that the same responsibility rested on this boy with respect to informing the school board.

Young Peck²² and other pupils arrived at school one January morning while school committeeman Smith was building a fire to heat the building. There was an exchange of words between Peck and Smith about some writing which Peck had done with chalk on the stovepipe and which he had not subsequently erased very well. Smith asked Peck if he could not clean off the writing somewhat better. Peck responded that he supposed he could clean it off a little more with a hoe or scraper, but that "the teacher was satisfied with it." Smith then called Peck saucy and impudent, and Peck retorted that Smith was the saucier of the two. Smith advanced toward Peck with raised hand, and Peck swore at Smith and dared Smith to hit him. Smith told Peck that he would have to stop swearing. Peck replies that "he would not for him or for any G-d d-n man," and asked Smith if he wanted him to leave school. Smith said he wanted Peck to stay in school and be a good boy. Peck continued using profane language. Smith told him to get his things and leave school. Amid dallying and more profanity, Peck added that he would not go until he got ready. Thereupon Smith, as stated by the court, "laid his

²⁰State ex rel. Crain v. Hamilton (1890), 42 Mo. App. 24.

²¹Board of Education v. Helston (1889), 32 Ill. App. 300.

²²Peck v. Smith (1874), 41 Conn. 442.

hand upon plaintiff's shoulder and led him to the door, and out of the schoolhouse, using no other violence, nor any force unnecessary to ejection of the plaintiff." At this point the woman teacher arrived, heard the oaths, saw Smith's action, and raised no objection. Peck took his books home, and remained out of school to the end of the term. The court held that formal action by the school committee was necessary to expell the boy, but upheld Smith's action in forcefully ejecting him from the schoolhouse.

d. *Derogatory articles, speeches, poems, etc.* A group of Wisconsin students²³ induced a local newspaper to publish a poem, which was a "take off" on school regulations. The court record did not reproduce the poem, but the board said that it awakened hostility in pupils and a defiant attitude toward school management. The principal testified that he told offenders: "You are suspended until you apologize and pay forty cents each," stipulating that the apology must admit having done wrong and a promise to be obedient students henceforth. The offenders refused to meet these requirements, and were suspended. The fact that no board rule was violated and that the offense took place outside of schoolhours did not deter the court from upholding the suspension—although a payment of forty cents for reinstatement could not be required. The court reasoned that it was impossible to formulate rules covering all possible cases of insubordination, that certain obligations were inherent in any proper school system and constituted a kind of enforceable common law of the school, and that the behavior involved had a direct influence on the order, decency, and good government in the school.

A Kentucky girl²⁴ was expelled for writing an alleged "insulting composition." The composition did not appear in the record, and the court did not feel called upon to determine whether the girl actually intended to insult the teacher. The court reasoned that the matter of insult had been decided by the superintendent and the decision ratified by the board, and that there was no evidence of malice or unfairness in the board's action. The expulsion was upheld.

A Court of Appeals in California²⁵ upheld the expulsion of a high-school student for making an incendiary address in the high-school auditorium during school hours. The student declared that the auditorium, chemistry room, and domestic science department were unsafe because of fire hazard, and denounced the school board for requiring students to hold mass meetings, social entertainments, and class productions in such places. He criticized the board's management of school property, and denounced board action in forbidding an annual student "donkey fight"—which sometimes resulted in "cracked heads and injured

²³State v. District Board (1908), 135 Wis. 619, 116 N.W. 232, 16 L.R.A. (N.S.) 730, 128 Am.St.Rep. 1050.

²⁴Board of Education v. Booth (1901), 110 Ky. 807, 23 Ky. Law Rep. 288, 62 S.W. 872, 53 L.R.A. 787.

²⁵Wooster v. Sunderland (1915), 27 Cal. App. 51, 148 P. 959.

bodies." He closed his address by offering a resolution, which the student body adopted, requesting the board to "no longer talk about bonds, but to do all in its power to put such a bond issue before the people of the district." When called before the board to explain his motives, the student admitted that the address "was intended as a slam" at the board. When he refused to apologize and make public retraction, as requested by the board, he was expelled. In upholding the expulsion, the court reasoned that the admitted aim of the address—to belittle and engender disrespect for the board, constituted a type of insubordination that required correction, and that the student's refusal to apologize made expulsion the only effective means of punishment.

Contrary to the foregoing decisions, an early Iowa case²⁶ refused to uphold expulsion of a pupil for publishing derogatory articles about the board in a local newspaper—in the absence of any board rule forbidding such activity by students. The articles were not in the record, but were characterized by the court as impertinent, impudent, and scandalous, and as holding the board up to ridicule and injuring its management and control of the school. The Iowa court reasoned that the statute did not authorize the board in an *ex post facto* manner to suspend pupils for ridiculing the directors or inciting insubordination in others. The court conceded that the board had jurisdiction to make a rule governing situations of this kind, and to punish students for violations, but added: "for the board to visit the severest penalty within their power upon a pupil for an act out of school, not prohibited either expressly or by implication, even by a general regulation, is at variance with both the letter and spirit of our laws."

e. *Mode of dress.* School officials have considerable authority to regulate the dress and appearance of pupils. Thus in 1923 an Arkansas board-rule²⁷ stipulated: "The wearing of transparent hosiery, low-necked dresses, or any style of clothing tending toward immodesty in dress, or the use of face paint or cosmetics, is prohibited." Eighteen-year-old Miss Pugsley used talcum powder on her face. Her teacher requested that she wash it off and not return to school again with powder on. A few days later she returned to school, continuing to use talcum powder and refusing to obey the board rule. She was denied admission to school. The court reasoned that the directors were in touch with local conditions, that there was no showing of medical benefit to the skin from using talcum powder, that obedience to constituted authority afforded good lessons in citizenship, that enforcement of the rule involved no cash outlay by pupils, and that there was really no valid basis for holding the rule to be unreasonable. One dissenting judge considered it unreasonable to deny an 18-year-old girl the privilege of wearing talcum powder on her face, stating that "useless laws diminish the authority of necessary ones."

²⁶Murphy v. Board of Directors (1870), 30 Iowa 429.

²⁷Pugsley v. Selbmeyer (1923), 158 Ark. 247, 250 S.W. 538, 30 A.L.R. 1212.

Courts have upheld the right of school officials to require students to wear uniforms under certain conditions. Thus a Mississippi agricultural high school²⁸ had a rule requiring boys to wear khaki uniforms when visiting public places within five miles of the school—even on Saturdays and Sundays. It was complained that the rule unreasonably interfered with parental authority and control. The court reasoned that the rule should apply while the students were under school control—which for boarding students was until the end of the term. However, day students are under parental control from the time they return home in the afternoon until they come to school the next morning—including Saturdays and Sundays, said the court. The rule "would not apply to those students living with their parents except while going to, at the school, and returning to the parental roof," added the court. A Colorado girl²⁹ was expelled from school for failing to wear the prescribed uniform. Although major attention was focused on the avenue of appeal open to the plaintiff before appealing to the court, it was indirectly held that the board rule prescribing uniforms for girls was valid if reasonable and that it was presumably reasonable since it was not shown to be unreasonable. In *Cornell v. Gray*,³⁰ the right of a college to prescribe gymnasium suits was upheld. In 1931 the Supreme Court of North Dakota³¹ upheld a board rule which provided for suspending or expelling students who wore metal plates on their shoes. Several boys were wearing such plates. Parents tended to show that the plates materially extended the life of heels, and contended that parents had a right to determine the dress of their boys. School officials said the plates were too noisy, and too wearing on polished hardwood floors of the school building. The plaintiff had removed his plates, but his mother made him restore them. In upholding the board, the court said that in spite of the parental command, the continued wearing of the plates constituted insubordination—reasoning that to hold otherwise would prevent the enforcement of any board rule which a parent told his child to ignore.

f. *Social activities.* A Georgia board³² forbade pupils to attend any moving-picture show or social function on any school night except Friday night. Certain pupils violated the rule by attending the movies—with their parents' consent. An injunction was sought to prevent the board from expelling offenders as a means of enforcing the rule. The court upheld the board. A different view was set forth by a Missouri court,³³ regarding a rule laid down by the governing board of a state normal school. The rule prohibited students from attending parties, entertainments, or places of public amusement—except by permission. Rosa Clark, age 16, was a day student at the school. She was living at home with her

²⁸*Jones v. Day* (1921), 127 Miss. 126, 89 So. 906, 18 A.L.R. 645.

²⁹*People v. Buckland* (1928), 84 Colo. 240, 260 P. 15.

³⁰*Cornell v. Gray* (1912), 33 Okla. 591, 127 P. 417, 42 L.R.A. (N.A.) 336, Ann. Cas. 1914 B, 399.

³¹*Stomberg v. French* (1931), 60 N.D. 750, 236 N.W. 477.

³²*Mangum v. Keith* (1918), 147 Ga. 403, 96 S.E. 1, rehearing denied.

³³*State v. Osborne* (1887), 24 Mo. App. 309.

father, and with his consent she attended a social dance one evening with her brother—held at a public amusement hall for invited guests. There was no immoral or offensive behavior at the dance. Rosa was expelled for violating the rule. The court followed *Dritt v. Snodgrass*,³⁴ to the effect that the board rule did not apply to the evenings of a student who was living at home with her father and had his consent to attend the party. The Dritt case involved expulsion of a 17-year-old boy for violating a school board rule by attending a social party one evening during the school term. The party was made up of invited guests, many young people from the community attended, there was no immoral conduct, and young Dritt had the permission of his parents to attend. However, in this case major attention related to liability of board members for wrongful expulsion.

g. *Pupils getting married.* Courts vary in their holdings on the reasonableness of board rules which require pupils to stop school upon getting married. The rule of a Mississippi board³⁵ excluding married pupils, was based on the assumption that admitting such pupils was detrimental to the good government and usefulness of the schools. Wanda, between 15 and 16 years of age, was married but otherwise eligible to attend school. She was excluded because of the board rule. The court held the rule to be unreasonable, speaking as follows:

It is argued that marriage emancipates a child from all parental control of its conduct, as well as such control by school authorities; and that the marriage relation brings about views of life which should not be known to unmarried children; that a married child in the public schools will make known to its associates in school such views, which will therefore be detrimental to the welfare of the school. We fail to appreciate the force of the argument. Marriage is a domestic relation highly favored by the law. When the relation is entered into with correct motives, the effect on the husband and wife is refining and elevating, rather than demoralizing. Pupils associating in school with a child occupying such a relation, it seems would be benefited instead of harmed. And, furthermore, it is commendable in married persons of school age to desire to further pursue their education, and thereby become better fitted for the duties of life. And they are as much subject to the rules of the school as unmarried pupils, and punishable to the same extent for a breach of such rules.

Dorothy Mutt Mitchell was enrolled in a Kansas high school in 1927-28, and in the fall of 1928 she enrolled as Dorothy Mutt.³⁶ Soon after the latter enrollment she was told that she could no longer attend because she was a married woman. She married Mitchell on February 29, 1928, and had a full-term child on August 9, 1928. She lived only a short time with her husband. After separation she attended another school, and while there was alleged to have associated with other men and to have induced a 16-year-old girl to accompany her to a public dance. Evidence

³⁴*Dritt v. Snodgrass* (1877), 66 Mo. 286, 27 Am. Rep. 343.

³⁵*McLeod v. State ex rel. Comer* (1929), 154 Miss. 468, 122 So. 737, 63 A.L.R. 1161.

³⁶*Mutt v. Board of Education of City of Goodland* (1929), 128 Kan. 807, 278 P. 1045.

indicated that of the two parties concerned, one she attended with her cousin. The other was a party from which she came directly home—arriving before dark after about three-fourths hours on the road, and at the dance she was accompanied by her mother. The 16-year-old girl had her parents' consent to attend the dance with Dorothy. The high-school principal and others gave affidavits that Dorothy was well behaved and of good moral character. In refusing to uphold the board's action, in excluding her from school, the court reasoned as follows:

It is the policy of the state to encourage the student to equip herself with a good education. The fact that the plaintiff's daughter (Dorothy) desired to attend school was of itself an indication of character warranting favorable consideration. Other than the fact that she had a child conceived out of wedlock, no sufficient reason is advanced for preventing her from attending school. Her child was born in wedlock, and the fact that her husband may have abandoned her, should not prevent her from gaining an education which would better fit her to meet the problems of life.

In a recent case, the Supreme Court of Tennessee took a somewhat different position from that of the Kansas and Mississippi courts.⁸⁷ The board rule provided that any student who marries during the school term shall be automatically "expelled—for the remainder of the current term." Any student who married during a vacation could not attend school during the next succeeding term. Peggy Thompson, an 18-year-old senior of good scholarship and in line for graduation in May 1957, married in February of that year. The board forbade her attendance during the remainder of the year, stating that she could re-enter the following school year. Evidence indicated that the board passed the rule upon the request of the principals of the four county high schools—because of deterioration in school discipline and decorum in recent years following student marriages. The principals testified that most of the confusion and disorder involved occurred immediately after the marriage and during the period of readjustment, and that the effect on students in general was greatest at this time—hence the provision for re-entry at the beginning of a subsequent school term. The court reasoned that any activity of a student that had a reasonable bearing on his influence upon other students or the school was within the bounds of reasonable regulation by the board; noted that it was the statutory duty of the board to suspend pupils "when the progress or efficiency of the school makes it necessary"; considered the testimony of the principals to be expert testimony in regard to what disrupts high-school operations; thought that the absence of any suggestion concerning a milder rule lent support to the rule in controversy; and held the rule to be reasonable. The court differentiated this case from the McLeod case—in which expulsion was permanent.

h. Paying for school property destroyed by pupil. Certain early cases involved board rules which required pupils to pay for school property

⁸⁷State ex rel. Thompson v. Marion County Board of Education (1957), 302 S.W. 2d. 57.

which had been carelessly or negligently injured or destroyed, and provided for excluding a guilty pupil from school until payment was made. Such board rules have not been upheld by the courts. In 1888 the Supreme Court of Indiana reasoned³⁸ that carelessness was one of the most common yet one of the least blameworthy faults of children, and that to punish them for carelessness would be to punish them where they had no intent to do wrong. The court said that no rule was reasonable which required a pupil to do what he could not do, and reasoned that most pupils had no money at their command, but would have to get money for such payment from a parent or guardian. If the parent or guardian had no money—or refused to give it to the child, added the court, the child would be punished for not paying when he had no power to pay. The rule was unreasonable.

An Iowa case³⁹ involved mandamus action to reinstate a ten-year-old boy in school, who had been expelled as a result of unintentionally batting a ball through a schoolhouse window. In granting reinstatement, and rejecting the board rule involved, the court said:

It would be very harsh and obviously unjust to deprive the child of education for the reason that through accident and without intention of wrong he destroyed property of the school district. Doubtless a child may be expelled from school as a punishment for breach of discipline, or for offense against good morals, but not for innocent acts. In this case the plaintiff was expelled, not because he broke the glass, but because he did not pay the damage sustained by the breaking. His default in this respect was no breach of good order or good morals. The rule requiring him to make payment is not intended to secure good order, but to enforce an obligation to pay a sum of money.

A Michigan court⁴⁰ reasoned that the upholding of a board rule, which provided for expelling a pupil from school who did not pay for his careless or negligent injury to school property, might in effect deny the privileges of the public school to poor children. A statute authorized the board to suspend or expel "any pupil guilty of gross misdemeanor or persistent disobedience," but the court pointed out that this did not govern a case in which a ten-year-old boy had carelessly broken a window pane. The rule was unreasonable.

i. *Behavior of parent or kinfolk.* It is possible for the action of parents, regarding school personnel, to be such that the presence of their children at school constitutes a disrupting influence on the school. Thus the mother of three Georgia children⁴¹ came to school one day and got into a dispute with the teacher—in the schoolroom while school was in session. The superintendent wrote to the father, stating that the mother's coming to Miss Hall's room seriously interfered with school discipline, and that as superintendent he considered it to be his duty to suspend the

³⁸State v. Vanderbilt, 116 Ind. 11, 18 N.E. 266, 9 Am.St.Rep. 820.

³⁹Perkins v. Board of Directors (1880), 56 Iowa 476, 9 N.W. 356.

⁴⁰Holman v. School Trustees (1889), 77 Mich. 605, 43 N.W. 996, 6 L.R.A. 534.

⁴¹Board of Education v. Purse (1897), 101 Ga. 422, 28 S.E. 896, 41 L.R.A. 593, 65 Am. St. Rep. 312.

⁴²Stat.
⁴³Bour

three children. The board sustained the teacher and superintendent. The opinion does not state specifically what the mother did or said before the assembled pupils in Miss Hall's room, but in upholding board action the court said: "The right of the child to attend a public school is dependent upon the good conduct of the parent as well as of the child." The court reasoned that most cases of expulsion from school were based on misconduct of the pupil, but that such misconduct was generally at the instance of the parent, so the logic was the same when expulsion was based on direct misconduct of the parent. The court elaborated as follows:

When a parent goes to the schoolroom of a lawfully established public school, and, in the presence of his or her children and other pupils, publicly calls in question the justice or correctness of a decision made by the teacher in a matter of discipline relating to such children, uses offensive and insulting language to such teacher, and acts in such a manner as to interrupt the exercise of the school, and conducts himself or herself in such a manner as to bring the teacher and the discipline of the school into contempt in the eyes of the pupils, it is not only lawful, but it is the duty of the authorities of the school, in the protection of the teacher whom they have placed on duty, as well as to sustain the character and discipline of the school, to exclude from the schoolroom the children of such parent, and this, too, although those thus excluded have not been guilty of a violation of any rule of the school.

The brother of a misbehaved youth in an early Vermont case⁴² tried by physical force to prevent the teacher and committeeman from removing the youth from school. When the youth, age 16 or 17 years, was excluded, he was told not to return unless he would make suitable acknowledgment of his misbehavior. After an absence of 2-3 weeks, he returned—but refused to make such acknowledgment, and refused to leave school. The teacher, Emily Culver, then enlisted the help of Committeeman Bean. When Bean attempted to remove the youth from school, the brother appeared and forcibly interfered and resisted Bean's efforts. The relative extent of public *versus* private control over the school in question is not quite clear, but the court reasoned that the school was subject to the discipline and government of the teacher, and that she could enlist the help of the committeeman as her agent in enforcing discipline. The brother was guilty of assault and battery.

j. *Failure to return monthly report card.* A Nebraska boy was suspended from school because he failed to return the monthly report card, signed by one of his parents, as required by a rule of the board.⁴³ The card had been properly signed and returned for each month from September through January, but the parents refused to sign the February report because the boy's grades were too low. Upon repeated refusal by the parents, the boy was suspended. In upholding the board, the court reasoned that a system of marking and recording the advancement of

⁴²*State v. Williams* (1866), 27 Vt. 765.

⁴³*Bourne v. State* (1892), 35 Neb. 1, 52 N.W. 710.

pupils was necessary and it was reasonable for the board to set up a rule for reporting to parents which involved parental acknowledgment of the report through signing and returning it to the school. The court added that the reasonableness of the rule had in fact been recognized by the parents through complying with it from September through January. There was no valid reason for not signing the February report.

k. *Other bases of exclusion.* The record of a Massachusetts board⁴⁴ showed that the Watson boy was excluded from school "because he was too weak-minded to derive profit from instruction." This judgment was substantiated by the statements of teachers who observed him and by the certificates of physicians. The record further showed that "He is troublesome to other children, making unusual noises, pinching others, etc. He is also found unable to take ordinary decent, physical care of himself." In upholding the boy's exclusion, the court said that the school committee was charged with managing the school, and that, whether the disturbing acts were voluntary or due to imbecility, they should not be allowed to continue.

A rule of an early Wisconsin board⁴⁵ required each pupil of sufficient age and strength to bring in a stick of wood suitable for use in the stove, as he returned from play at recess time. One boy refused to bring in wood, and was suspended for disobeying the rule. In holding this rule to be unreasonable, the court said that board rules must be reasonable and needful to the good order and efficiency of the schools, and must be such as will advance the education and mental improvement of the pupils and will promote pupil interest and welfare. There was no evidence that this rule contributed to these ends, reasoned the court—adding that a board could not make rules merely to satisfy its own fancy, and then exclude pupils for disobeying them.

An Arkansas board⁴⁶ suspended a pupil for alleged drunkenness and disorderly conduct on the streets of the town on Christmas day—when school was not in session. A statute authorized suspension for "gross immorality, refractory conduct, or insubordination." It was contended that even if the charge was proved, the board had no power to suspend the pupil because of it. In holding the suspension to be reasonable, the court pointed to the demoralizing influence of such behavior on other pupils, and on the successful discipline and management of the school.

2. PROVISION FOR A HEARING AND SUIT, IN EXCLUDING PUPILS FROM SCHOOL

While the right to a hearing or other legal action is a usual aspect of redressing grievances, there may be dispute over adequate provision for a hearing or over who may bring suit.

a. *Right to a hearing, on exclusion and reinstatement.* School officials may be convinced that the well-being of the school demands the exclusion

⁴⁴Watson v. City of Cambridge (1898), 157 Mass. 561, 32 N.E. 864.

⁴⁵State v. Board of Education (1885), 83 Wis. 284, 23 N.W. 102, 53 Am.Rep. 282.

⁴⁶Douglas v. Campbell (1909), 89 Ark. 284, 116 S.W. 211, 20 L.R.A. (N.S.) 208.

of a pupil without delay. In such a case there is no time for a hearing before exclusion. While there may be such immediate exclusion, if reinstatement is sought, the pupil must be reinstated or his exclusion justified at a hearing. But unless a statute provides otherwise, the courts usually hold that the hearing required in such cases is not the formal procedure used by a trial court in which witnesses are sworn and a verbatim report made of testimony.

A Nebraska case is in point.⁴⁷ A teacher had expelled a girl for persistent disobedience and gross misdemeanors during the morning session. The board met at noon and confirmed the teacher's action, and later notified the father. The father complained that he was not notified of the girl's action and that there was no hearing, before excluding her from school. The court observed that the statute did not specifically require a notice to either parent or pupil in regard to a hearing on expulsion, and reasoned that the board may use its judgment and pursue the course which it thinks is best suited to securing the evidence. The court reasoned that "To require notice and a formal trial would in many cases defeat the object of the statute" which authorizes expulsion when the welfare of the school demands it. However, the court added that when reinstatement was sought by mandamus, the board's allegations must be supported by evidence.

The adequacy of a hearing, relative to expelling a child from school, was also involved in the Morrison case.⁴⁸ The statute required written charges and a hearing before a pupil could be expelled. When the case was before the state's Supreme Judicial Court for the second time, the claim for damages was based solely on the ground that the plaintiff had not secured a fair trial in good faith before the school committee. The court pointed out that, in a hearing of the kind involved, the school committee did not have the status of a court—that it could not compel witnesses to appear, or compel them to testify if they did appear. The court said that whether certain of the plaintiff's witnesses were coerced into refusing to testify, as the plaintiff alleged, was a matter of fact for the jury. It was further noted by the court that the plaintiff's counsel did not object to the instruction given to the jury at the trial, to allow no damages unless the plaintiff—a high-school boy—had an estate of his own from which he paid tuition and board to attend another school, and also noted that the charges of the principal in expelling the boy had not been disapproved. The court in effect held that Morrison had a fair hearing.

A statute governing the Shaw case⁴⁹ provided for excluding "obstinately disobedient and disorderly" pupils from school, but provided that an investigation be made before a pupil was expelled for the reason indicated. The responsibility for making the investigation could not be

⁴⁷*Vermillion v. State* (1907), 78 Neb. 107, 110 N.W. 736, 15 Ann. Cas. 401.

⁴⁸*Morrison v. City of Lawrence* (1902), 181 Mass. 127, 68 N.E. 400; (1904) 186 Mass. 465, 71 N.E. 91.

⁴⁹*Shaw v. State* (1907), 78 Neb. 107, 110 N.W. 736, 15 Ann. Cas. 401.

delegated to the teacher, reasoned the court, and a note from a teacher concerning the behavior of a pupil could not be considered an investigation.

There has been difference of opinion among lower Pennsylvania courts, regarding the adequacy of a hearing in excluding pupils from school. In the Geiger case,⁵⁰ which involved expulsion of a boy for immorality, the court reasoned that expulsion was a quasi-criminal procedure, and said that a proper hearing involved notice, statement of the charges, names of the accusers, indication of time and place for a hearing where the accused may testify, examine his accusers, and be represented by counsel if he so desires. However, in the Mando case,⁵¹ decided at a later date under the same statute as the Geiger case, the court reasoned that the statutes used the term "hearing" in different connotations, and pointed to the Juvenile Court Law which provided: "There shall be no preliminary hearing in any cases affecting dependent, delinquent, or neglected children under the age of eighteen years." The Mando court reasoned that if there was no formal hearing in the case of a delinquent child, it was absurd to think there should be one upon suspending a child from school. The Hartzel case⁵² was cited as supporting this logic.

Where a pupil has been suspended for alleged misconduct, the board cannot continue the suspension indefinitely and refuse to grant a hearing. In such a case, a Massachusetts court⁵³ reasoned that school committee action assumed that the pupil was guilty of a fault, and stated that the committee could not arbitrarily make and apply rules where the facts are in dispute. Permanent exclusion under such conditions, without a hearing, was unlawful. It is of course necessary for a parent to show that his child has in fact been suspended, and to submit evidence of wrongful suspension, before there can be any action for reinstatement.⁵⁴

b. *Who may sue.* Controversy in some cases has centered on who may bring action for damages, allegedly resulting from wrongfully excluding a child from school. Most cases which involve this issue hold that action must be brought by the child—that the father can recover only for such pecuniary injury as he suffered because of loss of service or expense that resulted from the excluding action. This view has repeatedly been upheld in Georgia.⁵⁵ It has also been upheld in Indiana,⁵⁶ New York,⁵⁷ and Arkansas.⁵⁸ Presumably expense resulting from exclusion might include tuition or extra transportation costs in attending another school. In 1871 the Supreme Court of Ohio⁵⁹ took the opposite view—holding

⁵⁰Shaw v. Arenault (1924), 124 Me. 36, 125 A. 496.

⁵¹Geiger v. Milford Independent School District (1944), 51 D. and C. 647, 6 Monroe L.R. 73.

⁵²Mando v. Wesleyville School District (1952), 81 D. and C. 125, 35 Erie 74.

⁵³Commonwealth v. Hartzel (1914), 23 Dist. R. 739.

⁵⁴Bishop v. Inhabitants of Rowley (1896), 165 Mass. 460, 43 N.E. 91.

⁵⁵Cochran v. Patillo (1897), 16 Tex. Civ. App. 455, 41 S.W. 537.

⁵⁶Sorrells v. Matthews (1907), 129 Ga. 319, 58 S.E. 819, 13 L.R.A. (N.S.) 357, 12 Ann. Cas. 404; Board of Education v. Purse (1897), 101 Ga. 422, 28 S.E. 896, 41 L.R.A. 593, 65 Am.St.Rep. 312; Hurst v. Goodwin (1902), 114 Ga. 585, 40 S.E. 764, 88 Am.St.Rep. 43.

⁵⁷Boyd v. Blaisdel (1860), 15 Ind. 73.

⁵⁸Stephenson v. Hall (1852), 14 Barb. 222.

⁵⁹Douglas v. Campbell (1909), 89 Ark. 254, 116 S.W. 211, 20 L.R.A. (N.S.) 205.

⁶⁰Roe v. Deming (1871), 21 Ohio St. 666.

that the father of a pupil might bring action against the teacher or board for damages due to wrongfully excluding his child from school, not merely for expense or loss of service.

3. LIABILITY OF BOARD MEMBERS AND TEACHERS FOR WRONGFUL EXCLUSION

The courts have usually held that there is no personal liability of teacher or board members for damages because of wrongfully excluding a child from school. Thus a Missouri boy⁶⁰ was suspended for violating a board rule which forbade students to attend evening social parties during the school term. The court regarded it as conceivable that a board might possibly adopt a rule which was so "palpably unreasonable and unauthorized" as to make members personally liable for damages to a pupil. However, in refusing to allow damages in the case at bar, the court noted that the directors as elected officials received no pay and were frequently not thoroughly informed on the best methods of conducting school. The court added: "It would deter responsible and suitable men from accepting the position, if held liable for damages to a pupil expelled under a rule adopted by them, under the impression that the welfare of the school demanded it, if the court should deem it improper. They are to determine what rules are proper, and who shall say that the rule adopted in this case was harsh and oppressive?" An early Massachusetts case⁶¹ was governed by a statute which provided: "A child unlawfully excluded from any public school shall recover damages . . . against the city or town by which such school is supported." Action was against local school officials individually for wrongful exclusion. In refusing to hold them liable, the court reasoned that such officials act in the public interest and are not personally accountable to aggrieved individuals "unless some private right is violated, which the individual holds, as property, separately from the community at large. The right to attend school is not such; but is a political right, belonging to the plaintiff as a member of the community in which he lives, and in common with all others of the same community."

In some instances courts have directed their attention to whether malice was involved in the exclusion of a pupil. In the Burt case,⁶² a pupil was suspended for violating a board rule concerning behavior during religious exercises at school. In this case the board rule was upheld, but the court added that, in the absence of malice, there could be no personal liability of teacher or board member. The court reasoned that it would be a very harsh judicial rule that would make them liable for damages due to mistakes in performing their official duties as they understood those duties. The reasoning of the court in this case was followed in the Fewkes case.⁶³ The Supreme Court of New Hampshire⁶⁴

⁶⁰*Dritt v. Snodgrass* (1877), 66 Mo. 286, 27 Am.Rep. 343.

⁶¹*Learock v. Putnam* (1873), 111 Mass. 499.

⁶²*McCormick v. Burt* (1880), 95 Ill. 263, 35 Am.Rep. 168.

⁶³*Churchill v. Fewkes* (1883), 13 Ill. App. (13 Bradw.) 520.

⁶⁴*Sweeney v. Young* (1925), 82 N.H. 189, 131 A. 155, 42 A.L.R. 787.

has held that board members are not individually liable for damages even though they act maliciously in dismissing a pupil. Certain boys brought cider to a school function. They were invited to attend a board meeting to explain their behavior. Two who refused to do so were dismissed for misconduct. The matter was within the jurisdiction of the board and demanded judgment by its members, reasoned the court—noting that “judicial acts do not lose their character as such because malice induces them.” The court added: “Malice of itself as a state of mind is not a wrong for which the law gives redress. It is only for words or acts inspired or prompted by malice that malice becomes within the reach of judicial cognizance.” “Maliciously doing a rightful act, which is not made a legal wrong by the malice, is not actionable,” observed the court.

In some early cases action was brought directly against the teacher on the assumption that a relationship exists between teacher and parent amounting to a private contract by which the teacher agreed to instruct the child. In 1839 such a case arose in Massachusetts,⁶⁵ where a schoolmaster refused to admit a child to school. The court reasoned that the teacher's only contractual relationship was with the school committee, and that the action of an aggrieved parent must be through that committee—not against the schoolmaster personally. A similar situation arose in Illinois,⁶⁶ in which a father forbid his son to study a certain system of handwriting which the board had ordered to be taught in the school. Upon the boy's persistent refusal, the teacher refused to hear his other lessons—and the boy left school, of his own accord. Action was instituted against the teacher for damages, on the assumption that there was an implied contract whereby the pupil would attend school and the teacher would teach him. The court held that the only contract for instruction which the teacher could have was with the board. In *Morrison v. City of Lawrence*⁶⁷ action to recover damages for expulsion from school was based on the ground that the plaintiff had not been given a fair trial by the school committee. No damages were allowed. However, this case is discussed more fully in the section on right to a hearing on exclusion and reinstatement in school.

Contrary to the foregoing decisions, the Supreme Court of Alabama has held the teacher liable, along with the board—for wrongfully excluding a pupil.⁶⁸ The board levied a fee of one dollar per month, the proceeds of which were used mainly to supplement the teacher's salary. A pupil was expelled for not paying the fee. The court held that the fee was unlawful, that expulsion was accordingly unlawful, and that the pupil was entitled to damages. Although the teacher acted upon instruction from the board, the court said he was charged with knowing that

⁶⁵*Spear v. Cummings* (1839), 23 Pick (Mass.) 224, 34 Am.Dec. 58.

⁶⁶*Stuckey v. Churchman* (1878), 2 Ill. App. (2 Bradw.) 584.

⁶⁷*Morrison v. City of Lawrence* (1902), 181 Mass. 127, 63 N.E. 400; (1904) 186 Mass. 456, 72 N.E. 91.

⁶⁸*Williams v. Smith* (1915), 192 Ala. 428, 68 So. 323.

the fee collection was unlawful. The court stated: "There can be no innocent agency in the commission of an act upon its face unlawful and tortious."

4. PARENT OF EXCLUDED CHILD LIABLE FOR DISRUPTING THE SCHOOL

Parents of an expelled pupil may become defiant and disrupt the school. This happened in a Texas case,⁶⁶ in which 14-year-old Homer was expelled from school. The boy was told by the principal to take his books and leave school. This Homer did, but he returned the next day—shortly after school opened. The principal reminded Homer that he had been expelled, and that he must leave the school. Homer told the principal that he was going to stay in school, that he was not afraid of her or of any officer she might get to remove him. The father approached the trustees to get Homer back in school, but they took no action. The father said that, if the trustees would not act, he would send Homer back to school anyway. The case was governed by a statute which made it a misdemeanor for any person to loiter on public school grounds while school was in session "after being warned by the person in charge of such school to leave such grounds." Homer was loitering within the meaning of the statute. His father, who knew that Homer had been expelled and who instigated the boy's action, acted in defiance of the law and of the school authorities—and was guilty of a misdemeanor.

⁶⁶King v. State (1914), 74 Tex. Cr. Rep. 658, 160 S.W. 675.

CROWDED OUT

Crowded Out is the story of what happened to Kathy when the enrollment in her room increased from 24 to 40—and of what happened to her fine teacher, Miss Roberts. It is the eighth public relations film produced jointly by the National Education Association and the affiliated state education associations. Through the years, national and state education associations have centered on the harmful effects of overcrowded classes. Now this problem (rated number one by thousands of teachers) is brought into sharp focus. *Crowded Out* throws a powerful light on the loss to children when teacher load is excessive.

This film is useful in any community. If teacher load is not a problem or if the school has a reasonable teacher-load situation, the film can be used to spark a "bragging session," to make people proud of what they have. If teacher load is a problem, *Crowded Out* can be used as a vehicle to get discussion going—discussion that can lead to reform. It should be shown to teacher groups, PTA's, FTA's, Student NEA's, service clubs, veterans organizations, and other groups until the entire community has had an opportunity to see it. This is a film for every citizen. Be sure your local TV carries it (any time after September 12, 1958, national TV release date. The film can be purchased from the Division of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. (16mm, 29 minutes. Sound: color, \$170; black and white, \$75.) Prints can be borrowed or rented from state education associations or from educational film libraries.

A State-wide Survey of the Insurance Protection of Pennsylvania Public Secondary School Students

RESEARCH COMMITTEE OF THE PENNSYLVANIA
STATE ASSOCIATION FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL
EDUCATION, AND RECREATION

ACCIDENTS are the principal cause of death among students between the ages of 5 and 18. According to the National Safety Council, 60 per cent of all accidents occurring to pupils in kindergarten to twelfth grade inclusive happen at school or on the way to or from school—54 per cent in the school plant and six per cent going to and from school.¹ In the school plant, accidents happened most frequently in organized athletics, principally football and basketball. Accidents in auditoriums and classrooms were second, with shops third. Accidents going to and from school (principally falls) occurred most frequently on streets and sidewalks, with motor vehicle accidents second in rank of occurrence.² Despite intensive efforts made by all school authorities to promote safety, some accidents occur; and parents, school administrators, and teachers are deeply concerned about these accidents.

LIABILITY OF SCHOOL BOARD AND TEACHERS

When an accident resulting in personal injury occurs on school property, the question often arises as to whether damages can be recovered. The dominant principle of law in the United States is that the school district, or school board, is *not*, in the absence of a statute, subject to liability for injuries suffered by students. The school board is performing a governmental function of the state as one of its agencies. The state is immune from liability and this immunity is transferred to the school board. Although the common-law rule exempts the board of education, such immunity is not held by teachers and coaches. The teacher is liable for his or her own negligence; therefore, teachers and coaches should conduct their various activities in a careful and prudent manner.

¹National Safety Council, *Accident Facts* (Chicago: National Safety Council, 1957), pp. 92-93.

²*Ibid.*

Members of the 1957 Research Committee—Dr. Joseph Brancato, Mr. Roland P. Kyle, Mr. Harvey D. Lecollier, Dr. Eugene P. Powers, Dr. Arthur Weigle, and Elmer A. Gross, Chairman, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

Even though the school boards in Pennsylvania have no legal responsibility for accidents that occur to pupils at school or on the way to or from school, many educators believe that the school directors have a moral responsibility to help the parents of injured students ease the burden of the resulting medical expense. In fact the *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1953*, permit the board of school directors "to appropriate any moneys of the district for the payment of medical and hospital expenses incurred as a result of participation in such athletic events or games, . . . and for the purchase of accident insurance in connection with such participation and transportation."³ Also, the board of school directors is permitted to insure "every employee of the school district against liability for damages sustained by pupils or others as a result of the employee's negligence in the performance of his or her duties during the course of his or her employment."⁴

This present study was conducted to find out what insurance protection school administrators are making available to public secondary-school students in order to reduce or completely eliminate the financial burden created by accidents happening at school.⁵

FORMULATING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Formulating clear, concise, and meaningful questions for inclusion in a short insurance-coverage questionnaire was quite a task. A tentative questionnaire was formulated and sent to the other five members of the Research Committee; to the President of the Pennsylvania State Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; to the Executive Director of the Pennsylvania Interscholastic Athletic Association; to two insurance company representatives; and to principals of 12 public secondary schools for criticisms. On the bases of these criticisms, the questionnaire was revised and mimeographed in its final form. An introductory letter that would elicit responses from public secondary-school principals was tentatively formulated, revised many times, and evolved into its final form in the same manner as the questionnaire. Finally, on Friday, October 11, 1957, the introductory letters and questionnaires were sent out to the principals of all the public secondary schools (grades 7 through 12) in Pennsylvania. Of the 987 schools contacted, 814 or 82 per cent returned the questionnaires. This large number of returned questionnaires is remarkable when one considers that no self-addressed, stamped envelopes were included with the questionnaires. Evidently the principals of the majority of the high schools in Pennsylvania thought the study was sufficiently important to fill out and mail back.

³Department of Public Instruction, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1953* (Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1953), Section 511 (f), pp. 64-65.
⁴*Ibid.*, Section 774 (b), p. 112.

⁵The Pennsylvania State Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the Pennsylvania Interscholastic Athletic Association each appropriated \$25 to help defray the expenses of this study.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Of the 814 schools that returned the questionnaires (82% returns), 196 were senior high schools, 180 were junior high schools, and 438 were junior-senior high schools. In Table I the student enrollment in each of these three main types of secondary schools is shown.

TABLE I.—NUMBER AND STUDENT ENROLLMENT OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, AND JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF PENNSYLVANIA THAT RETURNED QUESTIONNAIRES

<i>Student Enrollment</i>	<i>No. of Senior H.S.</i>	<i>No. of Junior H.S.</i>	<i>No. of Junior-Senior H.S.</i>	<i>Total No. of Schools</i>
0-249	22	18	34	74
250-499	51	44	145	240
500-999	59	73	188	320
More than 1,000	64	45	71	180
Total	196	180	438	814

QUESTIONNAIRE

Listed below are the questions asked of the school principals and the responses received.

- I. *Is some plan of commercial insurance coverage offered to students this school year, 1957-58?*

Yes 795, No 19. Approximately 98% of the schools responding offered some plan of commercial insurance coverage.

- II. (a) *If the answer is No to question I, who pays for accidents that occur to students enroute to and from school, in school, and while participating in school-sponsored activities?* Student, 14; Student and School, 4; No Reply, 1.
 (b) *Who pays for accidents that occur to students who participate in inter-scholastic sports (practice and game)?* School, 14; Student, 2; Student and School, 1; No Reply, 2.

- III. *What company underwrites your insurance program?^a*

Benefit Association of Railway Employees	168 ^b + 21 ^b = 189 or 24%
Nationwide Mutual Insurance Co.	174 + 14 = 188 or 24%
American Progressive Health Insurance Co.	118 + 4 = 122 or 15%
Vermont Accident Insurance Co.	116 + 1 = 117 or 15%
North American Accident Insurance Co.	53 + 1 = 54 or 7%
Pilot Life Insurance Co.	36 + 3 = 39 or 5%
Indemnity Insurance Company of North Amer.	26 + 1 = 27 or 3%

^aThis figure and all similar succeeding figures indicate the number of schools that have insurance with only the insurance company listed.

^bThis figure and all similar succeeding figures preceded by the "+" sign, indicate the number of schools that have insurance with two insurance companies; e.g., Benefit Association of Railway Employees and one other company.

^cThe reader should be careful in interpreting the answers to this question. The companies that underwrite the insurance policies of the greatest number of schools do not necessarily sell the greatest number of policies!

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American Casualty Co. ⁷	10 + 8 = 18 or 2%
Hoosier Casualty Co.	12 + 4 = 16 or 2%
Reliance Mutual Life Insurance Co.	9 or 1%
Continental Casualty Co.	3 + 2 = 5 or 1%
Washington National Insurance Co.	4 or 1%
Mutual of Omaha	3 + 1 = 4 or 1%
American Farmers Mutual Co.	
c/o Lumbermans Mutual Casualty Co.	2
Secured Insurance Co.	2
Merchants Mutual Casualty Co.	1
American Motorist Insurance Co.	1
Benefit Association of Railway Employees (B.A.R.E.) and Nationwide Mutual	10
B.A.R.E. and Pilot Life Insurance Co.	3
B.A.R.E. and American Progressive Co.	3
B.A.R.E. and American Casualty Co.	2
B.A.R.E. and Hoosier Casualty Co.	2
B.A.R.E. and Vermont	1
Nationwide and American Casualty Co.	4
American Casualty Co. and Mutual of Omaha	1
American Casualty and Hoosier Casualty Co.	1
American Progressive and North American Accident Indemnity Insurance Co. and Continental Casualty Co.	1
Continental and Hoosier Casualty Co.	1
Insurance Company Not Named	27 or 3%
TOTAL ⁸	795

IV. *Who chose the company that underwrites your insurance program?*

1. School Board	450 or 57%
2. Committee ⁹	132 or 17%
3. School Board and Principal	82 or 10%
4. Principal	76 or 10%
5. Physical Education Department (approved by Athletic Advisory Council of Board of Education	24 or 3%
6. Superintendent	10 or 1%
7. P.T.A.	4 or 1%
8. Athletic Council	2
9. No Reply	15 or 2%
TOTAL	795

V. *What plans are included in the insurance program of your school?*

Many and varied school accident insurance plans were offered to the principals of the public secondary school in Pennsylvania by the 16 insurance companies whose brochures were reviewed. The policy coverage for accidental injury of students varied somewhat in the brochures

⁷American Casualty Co. of Reading, Pennsylvania, indicated it will no longer underwrite school accident insurance policies.

⁸In order to arrive at this total amount, add only the first figures listed after the insurance companies.

⁹These committees were made up of various combinations of the following: school board, board of education chairman, county superintendent, district superintendent, supervising principal, principal, business manager, coaches, physician, nurse, faculty, and attorney.

analyzed; however, the majority of the insurance companies offered coverage that protected the student for injuries received while traveling directly between home and school, while in school, and while participating in school-sponsored activities. This coverage was extended to gym classes, shop classes, field trips, school lunch periods, extracurricular activities sponsored and supervised by the school, and intramural athletics. Other important features that were noted in the various plans offered were:

1. All insurance companies raised their premiums if interscholastic football on the 10th- to 12th-grade level was included in their policies.

2. The majority of the 16 insurance companies permitted students to participate in all interscholastic sports except football on the senior high-school level without increasing premiums.

3. The majority of the companies insured students participating in interscholastic sports including football on the junior high-school level without increasing the premium.

4. A few companies insured junior and senior high-school students who participated in interscholastic football on a \$25 deductible clause for a small increase in premium payments (approximately fifty to seventy-five cents). This plan had to be adopted by the entire school even though enrollment in it by the students was voluntary.

5. Some insurance companies increased their premiums when interscholastic sports and/or intramural football were included in the policy.

6. Some insurance companies had a deductible clause of the first \$10 for all school accidents.

7. Premiums varied from \$1.25 to \$3.50 per student for approximately the same insurance coverage among the various insurance companies.

8. For an additional premium per year (\$8 to \$18.35), schools may obtain approximately the same medical coverage (\$500 and up) on a no deductible clause for interscholastic football players.

9. Some companies offer Allocated and Unallocated Plans with their interscholastic football clauses. In the Unallocated Plan, the payments are not restricted by a medical expense schedule. In the Allocated Plan, the medical expense is paid up to the specific amount stated in the schedule of benefits as the result of any one accident. The Allocated Plan premiums are usually less than the premiums for the Unallocated Plan.

10. Some insurance companies offer "Catastrophe" plans. These plans provide protection against football injuries that require expensive treatment (\$2,500 or \$5,000 and up). There is usually a deductible clause included (first \$250 or \$500).

In general, four main types of insurance plans were checked by the principals of the public secondary schools. However, combinations of these plans were more frequently checked than an individual plan. The four main types of insurance plans were:

Plan A

Accidents occurring enroute to and from school, in school, and while participating in school-sponsored activities (all interscholastic sports except football on the senior high-school level).

One hundred and four schools had this type of insurance only for their students. In almost every case, the student paid for the insurance

premium. The premium payments varied from \$1.25 to \$3.50. If the cost of the particular injury exceeded the amount provided for in the insurance (accident medical expense varied from \$2,500 to \$5,000), the student in almost every case paid the balance of the cost. If a school offered this type of insurance to its students, any student injured while playing interscholastic football was not covered. Sixty-one of the 104 schools offering Plan A gave specific information on their total school enrollment (46,876), and number of students taking advantage of this Plan (21,845). The percentage of students who had insurance was 47.

Plan B

Accidents occurring enroute to and from school, in school, and while participating in school-sponsored activities including interscholastic football on the junior high-school level.

This plan appeared to be best suited for junior high-school students. More than half of the 16 insurance companies whose brochures were studied offered this amount of coverage without increasing their premiums. One hundred and thirty-eight schools had this type of insurance only, for their students.

Who paid the premium? Students, 115; Student and School, 21; No Reply, 2; Total, 138.

If the cost of the particular injury exceeded the amount provided for in the insurance coverage, who paid the balance of the cost? Student, 102; Student and School, 16; No Reply, 20; Total, 138. Seventy-three of the 138 schools offering Plan B gave specific information on the number of students taking advantage of this Plan (27,422), and their total school enrollments (43,229). The percentage of students insured was 63.

Plan C

Interscholastic Football Only. Many companies insured students who participated in interscholastic football providing an additional premium was paid on these students. Deductible clauses for the payment of injuries were included in some policies. A few companies insured junior and senior high-school students who participated in interscholastic football, on a \$25 deductible clause, for a small increase in the premium payments of all the students in a particular school (approximately 50 to 75 cents). This type of plan had to be adopted by the entire school (insurance company requirement) even though participation by the students was voluntary.

Almost all the schools that checked Plan C indicated they had this plan in combination with one of the other plans. Five schools had Plan C type of insurance, only, for their students. Of these five schools, one had a no deductible clause, two had \$10 deductible clauses, two did not reply. Four schools mentioned that this insurance was compulsory for their interscholastic football players, and one school did not reply. In four of the schools the school paid the premium. The players paid the premium in the fifth school.

Plan D

Some schools indicated that the cost of accidents occurring to students participating in interscholastic athletics was paid by the school or some school fund. All schools that checked this plan indicated that they had Plan D in combination with other plans.

Plans A and B

One hundred and forty-six, or 18%, of the schools had both of these types of insurance plans for their students. Eighty-three of the 146 schools offering Plans A and B gave specific information on the number of students taking advantage of these plans (30,063), and their total school enrollments (46,965). The percentage of students insured was 64.

Plans A and C

One hundred and thirteen, or 14%, of the schools had both of these types of insurance plans for their students. Fifty-seven of the 113 schools offering Plans A and C gave additional information on the number of students taking advantage of these plans (25,485), and their total school enrollments (40,831). The percentage of students insured was 62.

Plans A and D

Sixty-two, or 8%, of the schools had both of these types of insurance plans for their students. Twenty-seven of the 62 schools offering Plans A and D gave additional information on the number of students taking advantage of these plans (15,665), and their total school enrollments (25,037). The percentage of students insured was 63.

Plans A, B, and C

One hundred and ninety-three, or 24%, of the schools had these three types of insurance plans for their students. One hundred and twenty-three of the 193 schools gave specific information on their total school enrollment (90,368), and the number of students taking advantage of these plans (54,339). The percentage of students insured was 60.

Plans A, B, and D

Twenty-five or 3% of the schools had these three types of insurance plans for their students. Fifteen of the 25 schools gave additional information on the number of their students taking advantage of these plans (8,412), and their total school enrollments (13,965). The percentage of students insured was 60.

Plans A, C, and D

Two schools had these three types of insurance plans for their students. Only one school reported on its total enrollment (867), and the number of students taking advantage of these plans (600). The percentage of students insured was 69.

No Reply on Plans

Seven schools indicated they had commercial insurance available for their students but did not check any of the plans listed.

Comments by Principals

Various descriptive comments made by principals of the public secondary schools in regard to their particular plan of paying for school accidents follow:

1. All football or athletic injuries are taken care of by the high-school athletic fund.

2. Players are expected to use family insurance (Blue Cross, Blue Shield, etc.) to pay for athletic injury costs. Costs above family insurance coverage will be paid from the School Athletic Insurance Fund.

3. School accident insurance policies are compulsory for interscholastic athletic participants.

4. Students are required to take out accident insurance before they can participate in interscholastic athletics. Premiums are then refunded to the athletes by the school if he remains out for the team.

5. The school pays the additional premium for interscholastic football coverage.

6. The school pays the accident insurance policy premiums for interscholastic athletic participants.

7. A certain amount of money is set aside by the school board each year to pay for costs of injuries.

8. A football fund from ten per cent of the gate receipts takes care of the football injuries.

9. Five cents was retained from each football admission for a football accident and injury fund. There was always some money left in the fund after paying the bills at the end of the season.

10. The school board underwrites the complete cost of an extensive athletic program. No admission fee is charged for any sport. The program truly belongs to the students and secondly to the people of the community.

11. The school board pays for athletic injuries. This plan seems quite satisfactory, and does not require nearly the financial outlay that was required when commercial insurance was carried. In addition, there is less paper work and more complete coverage.

12. In the past insurance was carried against injury in football, but it was found unsatisfactory and expensive. At the present, the school board or athletic committee provides a fund for athletic injuries into which a certain amount of money is paid every year. From this fund the cost of all injuries is paid. So far this system has been better and cheaper than commercial insurance coverage.

VI. *Was the 1957-58 insurance program in your school adequate?*

Yes—627 or 79%; No—94 or 12%; No Report—41 or 5%; New Program, cannot judge—33 or 4%; Total—795

Some of the comments made by principals in regard to the adequacy of school accident insurance policies follow:

1. All of the students do not enroll in the school accident insurance program.

2. It is complicated to administer.

3. Insurance premiums are too high. This high cost of insurance is caused by excessive charges by the medical profession.

4. Maximum benefits paid for medical expenses of interscholastic football injuries are not large enough.

TABLE II.—TYPE AND NUMBER OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS THAT OFFER COMMERCIAL LIFE INSURANCE COVERAGE TO THEIR STUDENTS, THAT HAVE AN INTERSCHOLASTIC FOOTBALL PROGRAM, AND THAT HAVE INSURANCE COVERING FOOTBALL PLAYERS.

Type of School	No. of Schools	No. of Schools With Commercial Insurance	No. of Schools Without Commercial Insurance	No. of Schools Offering Football	No. of Schools With Ins. Covering Football	No. of Schools Without Football
Jr.-Sr. High Schools	438	433	5	301 ^a	249+4(253) ^b	133
Sr. High Schools	196 ^c	190	6 ^d	163	112+6(118) ^e	33
Jr. High Schools	180	172	8	101 ^a	90+3(93) ^f	75
Total	814	795	19	565 ^a	464	241

^aFour schools did not indicate whether or not football was offered.

^bFour of the five schools that offered no commercial insurance are included because the school paid for football injuries.

^cAt least five of the schools that responded had enrollments of all girls.

^dAll six schools that offered no commercial insurance coverage paid for football injuries.

^eThe six schools with no commercial insurance are included because the school pays for athletic injuries.

^fThree schools with no commercial insurance offer football and the school pays for athletic injuries.

^gEight schools did not indicate whether or not football was offered.

5. The insurance company does not pay all medical bills and has a limit on X-rays for football.

6. There is not enough dental coverage.

VII. A. *Would you be in favor of a state law requiring insurance to be carried for all students participating in interscholastic sports?*

Yes—529 or 65%; *No*—202 or 25%; *No Reply*—28 or 3%; *No Opinion*—55 or 7%; Total—814

B. *Who should pay the premium?*

School—274 or 52%; *Student*—124 or 23%; *Student and School*—53 or 10%; *No Reply*—41 or 8%; *No Opinion*—25 or 5%; *Others*¹⁰—12 or 2%; Total—529

COMMENTS BY SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Some of the comments made by the secondary-school principals in regard to a state law requiring insurance to be carried for all students participating in interscholastic sports follow:

1. Since the law compels a pupil to go to school and take physical education, and if sports have the worth-while values educators say they have, then those same laws should provide payment of bills for injuries that occur, and at no cost to the parent.

2. If interscholastic athletics is an integral part of school programs, then the financial responsibility should be the schools'.

3. A student participating in a school-sponsored activity should certainly be protected either by insurance or by the school district.

¹⁰Those suggested were: state and school district; athletic fund; school district should decide; and school should pay football premium, student should pay premium for everything else.

4. If admission is charged for interscholastic athletic events, the school or state should make some provision to protect the participating athletes from injury.

5. It is not logical for the school to pay for the insurance premiums of interscholastic athletes who participate voluntarily and not pay for the premiums of those students who *must* participate in physical education classes. If the premiums for interscholastic sport insurance are paid, then the premiums for all school accident insurance should be paid.

6. A state law requiring interscholastic athletic accident insurance would relieve school administrators of considerable worry.

7. If a state law requiring interscholastic athletic accident insurance is passed, the state should pay the premiums.

8. A law requiring insurance is preferred if controls are instituted to prevent abuse of the law.

9. Compulsory insurance is acceptable if reasonable rates are charged.

10. A state law is desirable but the school shouldn't have to pay the premiums for families that have their own insurance coverage.

11. A state law is not needed because sufficient insurance plans are now available.

12. Insurance premiums should be paid out of the athletic fund.

13. A state law is not desirable because the faked injuries and other abuses would make premiums prohibitive.

14. Interscholastic athletic insurance is a variable factor and depends upon the local situation.

15. The state should not infringe on personal responsibilities.

16. A state law would lead to more bureaucratic control. Parents should realize that the school is not legally liable to pay for the cost of injuries.

COMMENTS ON SCHOOL ACCIDENT INSURANCE BY INSURANCE COMPANY REPRESENTATIVES

In asking the representatives of insurance companies for their brochures so that this printed matter could be analyzed, the writer received some interesting comments concerning accident insurance for school pupils. To give the reader an idea of the difficulties that beset some of the insurance companies, the comments received from certain insurance company representatives are reiterated below:

1. Many of the school child accident insurance policies are being sold at an unrealistically low rate. The premiums received by some companies have not been enough to pay their claims. Last year one of the major companies writing this business withdrew from the field entirely (Actually, the writer knows of two companies that withdrew.)

2. This company has discontinued issuing school child accident policies, and is not renewing any in-force policies. Our experience with this form of insurance was unsatisfactory from a claim ratio, and an increase in premium or reduction in benefits to take care of all the claims would probably price us out of the market.

3. It is very difficult for an insurance company to set up premium rates for body contact sports, particularly interscholastic football. Companies have been attempting to insure against interscholastic football injuries on an individual team basis and on a group basis, but it seems that the usual group philosophy

of the greater the spread, the more profitable the line does not hold when applied to coverage for body contact sports. It seems only to multiply the number and severity of losses that are received rather than to cut down on over-all loss. In the last few years premium rates have sky rocketed, and interscholastic football is still producing loss ratios in excess of 100%. Companies have tried to combat this excessive loss ratio with an allocated plan of coverage which in some instances works out successfully from a company standpoint, but not from an insured student's standpoint. The only successful way to handle this coverage from a first dollar standpoint is to include interscholastic football in the over-all Student Accident and Health Program where the cost of this sport can be spread over a great number of students, thereby reducing the expense to a small amount per student in large secondary schools.

4. This company will no longer underwrite school accident insurance policies. We found that physical education and intramural activities represented a large portion of our claims. Interscholastic sports (excluding football) were not quite as hazardous as anticipated.

SUMMARY

School child accident insurance questionnaires were sent to the principals of all the public secondary schools (grades 7 through 12) in Pennsylvania. Of the 987 schools contacted, 814, or approximately 82%, returned the questionnaires.

1. Almost all (98%) of the schools responding offered some plan of commercial insurance coverage.

2. Seventeen companies underwrote school child accident insurance policies in Pennsylvania.

3. The school boards in the majority of the schools chose the companies that underwrote the school accident insurance programs.

4. Many and varied school accident insurance plans were offered to the administrators of the public secondary schools. The insurance plan best suited for a particular school depends upon many factors; e.g., type of school (junior high school or senior high school), interscholastic sports program (is football offered?), and type of insurance coverage desired ("catastrophe" plans). Review the brochures of the insurance companies, then select the plan best suited for the needs of your students.

5. The majority of principals thought that the insurance programs in their schools were adequate.

6. The majority of the principals were in favor of a state law requiring insurance to be carried for all students participating in interscholastic sports, and also believed that the school should pay the premiums.

A Survey of Certain Policies and Practices in Florida Junior High Schools

JAMES W. JORDON

DUE to the tremendous influx of new residents and the increased birth rate, Florida has and is experiencing a mighty swell of students in the junior high-school grades. This growth has led to the establishment of a rapidly increasing number of junior high schools which are separate and apart from the elementary and senior high-school grades, general interest in the junior high-school curriculum, and an *esprit de corps* among junior high-school teachers and principals.

To gain an oversight of present practices and policies in the junior high-school area and possibly to help coordinate the junior high-school program in Florida, it was moved by the Junior High School Principals Council that a survey be made. With the generous help of the Florida State Department of Education, a total of 452 questionnaires on junior high-school practices and policies were sent out from Tallahassee to Florida schools with junior high-school grades. Forty per cent, or 182 questionnaires, were returned. Replies came from every geographic area of Florida—from southern-most keys to the Alabama line and from the west coast beaches to Daytona Beach on the east coast. The reports came from the little hamlets and from the metropolitan districts. Thus it is felt the survey findings truly reflect certain facets of junior high-school education as it exists in Florida today.

The 164 tabulated replies were separated into four types of junior high schools as follows: The separate junior high school with no grades other than seventh through ninth; the junior high school that is part of a twelve-grade school; the junior high school that is attached to the elementary grades; and the junior high school that is attached to the senior high.

SIZE

It is interesting to note (see Table I) that over half of Florida's junior high schools have enrollments of less than four hundred with 79 per cent of the twelve-year school having fewer than two hundred students in the junior high-school grades. The separate junior high schools deviate the furthest from the central tendency by having 54 per cent with enrollments of more than nine hundred and an average of 992 students. As can be expected from this initial finding, the survey goes on to indicate the

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separate junior high school offers a greater range of subjects in its curriculum, more social activities, and more adequate guidance and remedial services than other types of junior high schools.

SCHOOL DAY

Schools open their doors to students from 7:40 to 9:00 in the morning and close the day from 1:10 to 4:10 in the afternoon, but 70 per cent of the schools open between 8:15 and 8:30 A.M. and close between 3:00 and 3:20 P.M. (see Tables IV, V, and VI). The school day for four out of ten junior high schools is between six hours and forty minutes and six hours and fifty minutes in length. The twelve-year schools have the longest school day with 44 per cent having seven full hours or more. Junior high schools attached to elementary schools have the shortest school day with 38 per cent having six and one-half hours or less.

TRANSPORTED STUDENTS

The average percentage of transported students, considering all reporting junior high schools, is 50 per cent and half of the schools have over half of their student enrollments transported. This high incidence of transported students certainly helps to account for the fact that a number of activities formerly considered extracurricular and placed after school hours are now included in the curriculum and placed within the regular school day. This trend is borne out later in the survey under discussion of the club and sports programs.

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF PERIODS

Seventy-four per cent of the junior high schools reported have six periods of from 55 to 60 minutes duration. The range spreads from five periods of 50 minutes to seven periods of 60 minutes.

HOME-ROOM GROUPING

Heterogeneous methods are the general practice in all three grades insofar as grouping students into home rooms is concerned. Seven out of ten schools reported using heterogeneous methods at the seventh-grade level. The percentage of schools using ability grouping progressively increases at the higher grade levels. Separate junior high schools practice homogeneous or ability grouping more than other types of junior high schools—38 per cent to 20 per cent at the seventh-grade level. This is probably due to the larger enrollments and more sections of each grade level. Factors most frequently mentioned as being used in ability grouping are achievement and intelligence test scores, reading ability, and teachers' past ratings. Alphabetical grouping is the most commonly used method of heterogeneous grouping.

PROVISION FOR THE SLOW AND RAPID LEARNERS

Special provision for rapid learners in the form of specific programs still lags far behind similar efforts for the slow learners. Thirty-two per

cent of our junior high schools offer programs for the slow learners while only seventeen per cent have a definite program for the rapid learners. The separate junior high schools show the greatest inclination toward these specialized programs with 62 per cent having programs for the slow learners and 33 per cent having programs for the rapid learners.

Special education units granted by the state provide for the majority of the programs for the slow learners, thus more such programs are found in the larger urban schools. Other schools have devised their own programs with ability grouping and a minimum essentials course of study that stresses remedial work. One school makes use of their future teachers to help the slow learners.

Ability grouping with an enriched and accelerated program of studies appears to be the method most frequently used to provide for the rapid learners. One school reports they will have a coordinator for gifted pupils this year (1958-1959).

REMEDIAL WORK

Remedial teachers for specific subject areas were reported in only 17.5 per cent of our schools. More remedial classes are offered in the field of reading (17 per cent) than in any other. Fifty-four per cent of the separate junior high schools offer remedial work in reading.

COURSE OF STUDIES

One of the most difficult parts of the survey to tabulate was that pertaining to the course of studies. In the seventh grade the reporting schools offer 35 separate subjects in a variety of 122 ways. Art, for example, is offered in fourteen variations within the 43 schools offering art. Even the most common practice of giving art for five days a week for one semester is true in only five of the reporting schools.

As might be expected, the separate junior high schools offer the most extensive variety of subjects (29) and the twelve-year schools trail with seventeen subjects offered. Table I shows the most common subject offerings at the seventh-grade level.

At the eighth-grade level, 36 subjects are offered with 134 variations. Agriculture is offered in nineteen per cent of the schools as a whole, but in 47.5 per cent of the twelve-grade schools as compared to only six per cent of the separate junior high schools. On the other hand, industrial arts is offered in six out of ten of the separate junior high schools as compared to one out of ten in the junior high schools that are a part of the twelve-year schools. It is offered by 38 per cent of the schools as a whole. These two differences are not unexpected and can be easily understood.

TABLE I.—SUBJECTS MOST COMMONLY OFFERED IN GRADE 7.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Percentage of Schools</i>
<i>Required 5 days a week for the full year</i>	
English, Math, and Social Science	100
Physical Education	89.6
Science	78.4
<i>Required for a half or a smaller fraction of year</i>	
Music	28
Art	17.7
Science	11.0
Health	16.3
Reading	10.0
<i>Elective</i>	
Band	49
Chorus	15.7
Music	13.0
Art	10.5

Table II shows the most common subject offerings at the eighth-grade level.

TABLE II.—SUBJECTS MOST COMMONLY OFFERED IN GRADE 8.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Percentage of Schools</i>
<i>Required 5 days a week for the full year</i>	
Math, English, and Social Studies	100
Physical Education	85
Science	57
<i>Required for half year or a smaller fraction of year</i>	
Shop	16
Music	15
Science	16
Art	8
Homemaking	15
<i>Elective</i>	
Shop	13
Band	47
Chorus	22
Music	17
Homemaking	16
Art and Agriculture	8.7

At the ninth-grade level, we find 42 subjects being offered in 81 variations. The variety of subjects offered increases, but the variations in which they are offered sharply decrease. Subjects offered for a half year or for fewer than five days a week practically disappear. Table III shows the most frequently offered subjects at the ninth-grade level.

TABLE III.—SUBJECTS MOST COMMONLY OFFERED IN GRADE 9.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Percentage of Schools</i>
<i>Required</i>	
English and Math	100
Physical Education	79
Civics	63
General Science	23
Homemaking	60
<i>Elective</i>	
Band	55
General Science	54
Shop	39
Spanish	31
Agriculture	30
Homemaking	30
Chorus	20
Civics	25
Latin	24

The small number reporting on orientation and practices to prepare students for junior high school prior to their entering makes one wonder if there is sufficient articulation between the junior high schools and the elementary schools. The most frequently reported practice is to have the incoming students visit the junior high school for a day or a portion thereof.

GUIDANCE AND SPECIAL PERSONNEL

Two thirds of the reporting schools reported that their guidance program centered around the home-room teacher, whereas only six per cent indicated special personnel as the central figure of their guidance program. Special personnel were found almost exclusively in the separate junior high schools. One half of the separate junior high schools reported that they had a dean of boys; one fourth, a dean of girls; and seventeen per cent, a counselor. The survey left unanswered questions as to what are the primary duties of the special personnel.

SCHOOL HANDBOOK

Thirty-four per cent of the junior high schools stated they furnished their students with a school handbook, but many said they were planning to print handbooks in the near future. Over half of the separate junior high schools now have handbooks.

TESTING

More schools administer achievement tests than any other type of standardized test—106 schools, or 77.4 per cent. The Stanford and California tests vie for first place in frequency of use. Seventy-three per cent of the schools report the use of at least one intelligence inventory during the junior high-school years with 45 per cent of them using the Otis (Beta) Short Form. The California Mental Maturity Test was second most popular in this category.

Testing for reading ability and for interests lags far behind with both types being used in only one out of every ten schools. The Kruder Preference Inventory is used in thirteen of the fourteen schools reporting interest testing. The Iowa Silent Reading Test is the test most frequently used in measuring reading ability.

ASSEMBLIES

Four fifths of the junior high schools have regular assemblies, with 38 per cent reporting weekly assemblies. The length of the assembly periods ranged from twenty minutes to an hour, but 53 per cent reported periods from thirty to forty-five minutes in duration.

CLUBS

Of the schools reporting, 75.5 per cent have a club program with two thirds having fewer than seven clubs and only one out of ten having more than ten clubs. We have no figures concerning the number of clubs in junior high schools in past years, but it is felt the present findings indicate a scaling down of the club program *per se*. In six out of ten schools the participation in the club program is under 50 per cent.

Clubs meet during school time in 74 per cent of the schools, but, in the separate junior high schools, 51 per cent of the schools hold their clubs after school hours. Nine out of ten junior high schools connected with elementary grades or part of a twelve-year school hold their clubs during the school day.

In all, 86 different clubs were reported, of which 42 were interest clubs and 22 service clubs. The most popular clubs are the F.H.A. (Future Homemakers of America), F.F.A. (Future Farmers of America), 4-H, Student Council, and F.T.A. (Future Teachers of America). In the separate junior high schools the order is changed as follows: F.T.A., Student Council, F.H.A. and Journalism, Art, and Junior Red Cross.

SPORTS

Seven out of ten schools report having an intramural sports program. This program is strongest in the separate junior high schools (92 per cent) and weakest in the twelve-year schools (14 per cent). The program is held after school in one half of the schools. Here again the difference between the separate junior high school and the junior high school in-

corporated within the twelve-year school is noticed as only 25 per cent of the latter having their intramural program after school, while six out of ten of the separate junior high schools do so. (The reason we frequently compare these two types of junior high schools is because we feel they represent the two extremes with the other two types falling in between.)

Basketball is by far the most popular sport with softball, volleyball, touch football, and track following in that order. A larger number (79 per cent) of the junior high schools report an interscholastic sports program. Here the twelve-year schools are highest with 86 per cent and the one through nine schools lowest with 63 per cent. Again basketball is in first place followed by football, baseball, track, and softball.

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

In the area of social activities, two thirds of the separate junior high schools have school-sponsored dances generally in the evening and on school property. The frequency of the dances ranged from one to thirty-six per year. The twelve-year schools showed less inclination toward school sponsored dances, with only 23.5 per cent having such activities. For the over-all junior high-school area, 52 per cent have school sponsored dances—the average number of dances per year being eight.

SCHOOLS STILL SHORT OF TEXTBOOKS

Although more textbooks are being sold to the nation's expanding schools, the increase is not enough to make up for the shortage of books caused by rising enrollments, according to the American Textbook Publishers Institute, announcing results of its annual statistical survey. Educational publishers in the United States reported that sales were up 13½ per cent in 1957 over the previous year, for a total of \$484,660,000. Sales of textbooks, workbooks, and related materials were up 9 per cent to \$114,200,000 in the elementary grades, 15 per cent to \$61,200,000 for high schools, and 10 per cent to \$75,900,000 at the college level. Audio-visual materials produced by the publishers were up 12 per cent to \$1,460,000. Standardized tests were up 13 per cent to \$8,200,000, while encyclopedias and other reference books were up 16½ per cent to \$223,700,000.

The increase in textbook sales was due largely to the combined effect of growing enrollments and dollar inflation. Sales per student increased 3½ per cent at the elementary level and 7½ per cent at the college level, approximately equal to the increase in average textbook prices. At the high school level, where enrollments rose sharply, textbook sales per student increased 8 per cent, outdistancing the 4½ per cent increase in average prices. Most schools are still spending less than one penny of the educational dollar for textbooks and other printed materials of instruction. It is estimated that students could be supplied with good, up-to-date books in most schools for only about two cents of the educational dollar.

The Role of In-Service Training in Teacher Preparation

PETER TIMOTHY HOUNTRAS

GROWTH OF IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

IN-SERVICE training programs have as their primary objective the up-grading of teachers on the job. To be successful, lawyers, physicians, and architects must keep pace with rapid strides in their chosen profession. So must the teacher constantly seek to enlarge the understanding of his role in promoting the socialization process of pupils. Such growth toward professional maturity demands that the teacher keep abreast of newer developments in educational thinking and practice. The main difference between the outstanding teacher and the run-of-the-mill teacher is that the former has never ceased learning. The outstanding teacher experiments with and evaluates new instructional techniques, has an interest in learning more about the nature of pupils and their problems, and helps interpret the role of his school in serving the needs of the community. Not the least of his concern is his own development as a wholesome individual, including a frequent reassessment of the personal needs which he brings into the instructional process. A carefully planned and executed in-service training program is an excellent avenue for teacher growth in these various areas.

A factor which has contributed greatly to the establishment of in-service programs has been the widespread appreciation of the difficulties facing beginning teachers. This should not be construed as an indictment of teacher-training institutions. Educators seek to develop in prospective teachers a basis for developing a sound philosophy of education, including an appreciation of the role of education in the progress of mankind, and an understanding of the basic concepts and principles which help explain child growth and development, learning, and adjustment. However, much of this learning is necessarily effected at a superficial level of comprehension, since most students have had limited teaching experience. At best, students can parrot the principles they have learned on an examination.

But principles which have been memorized are of limited value if the individual cannot subsequently be judicious in their application. For example, how meaningful is a definition of readiness that it constitutes the physiological and psychological state of the organism to effect a given

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response or profit from a certain experience—if the teacher cannot render a sound judgment whether John Jones should be promoted or failed? In-service training programs can provide help to beginning teachers in understanding which educational principles apply in solving real problems. Administrators and experienced teachers can share valuable insights with the novice on the interrelationship between educational theory and practice.

Impetus for the establishment of in-service training programs has also come from the dynamic nature of education itself. The scope of teaching has enlarged from the mere responsibility for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic and the various content areas to include the social and emotional development of pupils as well. Teachers are concerned with the "growth of the whole child." The pupil's experiences in the home, in the neighborhood, and his contacts with the community-at-large fall within the province of the teacher as they affect pupil development. Teachers must necessarily cooperate and pool information in order to provide integrated, worth-while educational experiences. In-service programs facilitate and encourage interchange among teachers. Intelligent group planning can be a realistic outcome. A philosophy which permeates the entire school can be developed and each teacher helped to realize his role in implementing both general and specific educational objectives.

ORGANIZATION OF IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

In organizing a program of in-service training, consideration must be given to methods of planning, implementation, and evaluation. The following principles are suggested merely as guideposts. Each school must work out an individually tailored program.

1. *Attitudes of the administration important.*—The superintendent and principal must not only approve of such a program in principle but must also actively participate to render it feasible and worth while. Adverse or indifferent attitudes on the part of the administration result in a program which is weak and ineffective and hasten its demise. An important practical consideration within the bailiwick of administrative policy is the provision of attractive facilities and the designation of specific appropriations in the school budget. Likewise, the necessity of providing released time for participation in such programs is now widely recognized by administrators. Such a step is indicative to teachers, parents, and pupils of the importance attached to the continued professional growth of the staff. Some educators have even suggested that participation in the in-service program be stipulated as a contractual obligation, although the writer questions the advisability of coercion. Apathetic teachers invariably become obstacles to group growth.

2. *Democratic organization indispensable.*—Ideas must not be authoritatively imposed from the top. It is vital that teachers participate not only in the initial planning stages, but also in the frequent evaluations

along the way. Leadership which emerges from the group process should be recognized and encouraged. Provisions should be made for the maximum identification and active participation of all interested staff members, utilizing the specific competencies of every staff member. The extent of ego-involvement of participating members thus serves as an important index of the growth of the program.

A democratic atmosphere promotes a free exchange of ideas. Individual members are also more likely to accept and implement ideas and policies effected through group activity. Not the least important outcome of such democratic decision-making is the improved *esprit de corps* which permeates the faculty.

3. *Development of a philosophy of education.*—In the initial phases of organizing an in-service program, there is invariably a felt need for the formulation of a tentative philosophy of education which is acceptable to the group. This is important in surmounting the problem of teachers working at cross purposes. It is to be expected that the expressed philosophy of education will undergo periodic re-examination and change which reflects the growth of the staff.

Wherever possible, objectives should be stated in specific, operational terms, progress toward which can be evaluated. The realization of these objectives necessarily depends upon the care which has been exercised in formulating specific methods of attack.

4. *In-service training focused on problems of teachers.*—From the outset, planning should include the opportunity for teachers to discuss problems which arise in the classroom. In this way, in-service training can be viewed by the teacher as providing real help when it is needed. This is essential in overcoming much of the initial resistance to change and the complacent satisfaction with what has worked in the past, so characteristic of experienced teachers. If necessary, consultants should be brought in to speak on specific problems of general interest.

5. *Wide variety of activities essential.*—A functional, growing in-service program is characterized by a wide variety of activities. Any activity which has as its primary purpose the continued professional growth of the teacher may be viewed as a legitimate part of the total program. Therefore, in-service programs are not to be construed as limited to activities of the staff participating as a group. Examples of in-service activities which lend themselves especially to group participation are the following:

1. Faculty meetings
2. Departmental conferences
3. Demonstrations of effective instructional techniques
4. Reading circles on selected topics
5. Studies of the local community
6. Presentation of outside speakers
7. Field trips to places of common interest

8. Development of a curriculum materials laboratory in addition to a professional library
9. Case studies of problem children
10. Research on current problems
11. Faculty social clubs
12. Committees of teachers representing various schools to propose curricular and other needed changes
13. Teacher institutes.

Examples of in-service activities which are primarily individual in nature are the following:

1. Membership in professional, fraternal, civic, and religious societies
2. Conferences with the principal and supervising teacher
3. Observation of other teachers
4. Reading of professional journals
5. Enrollment in evening sessions and summer school
6. Participation in college and community workshops
7. Travel.

6. *Statement of long-term plans.*—In addition to immediate objectives, it is necessary that ultimate goals be developed that provide a basis for continuity of the in-service program. Failure to formulate long-term plans may result in loss of interest and group disruption as soon as immediate problems have been solved.

CONCLUSION

By way of summary, it may be pointed out that the insights gained from active faculty participation in well-organized in-service programs can result in more functional curricula, more effective teaching methods and techniques, better ways of evaluating the instructional process, and a deeper understanding of the characteristics of pupils. Better pupil adjustment as well as more learning becomes realistic expectations. Likewise, teachers can derive a great personal satisfaction from continued growth in their chosen profession. The alternative to in-service training may well be that instead of acquiring forty years of experience in a lifetime devoted to guiding pupils, the teacher essentially has one year of experience repeated forty times!

70,000 NURSES ARE NEEDED DAILY

70,000 nurses are needed in the United States. Although there were as many as 430,000 registered nurses in 1956, the demand for more nurses continues. A pamphlet, *Nurses and Other Hospital Personnel—Their Earnings and Employment Conditions*, gives the picture of nurses, their salary situation, and how they can be recruited as well as what has been done to help relieve the shortage in many places. The second is a leaflet, *Memo to Communities Re: The Nurse Shortage*—a folder-type publication which is short, simple, and to the point in giving ideas about what can be done. A copy of one or both of these new publications is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., at 5 cents for the leaflet and 15 cents for the pamphlet.

An In-Service Workshop Program for Adjusted Teaching in the Junior High School

ANNA L. BREWER

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

PATTENGILL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (grades 7-9) carries an enrollment of 1400 students, a staff of sixty-two teachers, three administrators, and two secretaries. It is one of four like schools in the city. In addition to the regular type of program including required and elective or exploratory classes as offered by other junior high schools throughout the state, other special programs are in operation in the building. A *reading program* for students below grade level and with a 90 I.Q. and above has been in operation for seven years. A *special education* program with specially trained teachers and which qualifies for state aid takes those students with below 75 I.Q. and has been in operation for seven years. An *accelerated program* including classes in English, science, and history for those students ranking 125 I.Q. and above has been in operation for three years. A *remedial program* for the slow learners with I.Q.'s ranging from 76-89 has been tried, but was abandoned at the close of the 1956-57 school year due to the lack of a real desire on the part of the staff to be assigned these classes. The immediate problem at hand deals with this latter group—the slow learners (with I.Q.'s ranging, for the most part, from 76 to 89) who are below grade level in reading and mathematics, who are low in achievement, and for whom extra attention and planning will need to be provided in the regular classroom situation.

Thirty-five teachers and administrators at the school are involved in an in-service workshop program scheduled as follows: six meetings during October and November, three months interim for research and experimentation, six meetings scheduled for March and April. An attempt is being made to answer the question: *How can one effectively teach the slow learner (as identified above) in the midst of high and medium capacity students within a given class?*

GETTING THE FACTS

Lists of slow learners which we have chosen to call "Remedial Groupings" are compiled for each grade on the basis of past achievement records, teacher recommendations, below grade level in reading and

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arithmetic and for the most part in the 76-89 I.Q. range. These lists are furnished teachers the first day of each semester and are subject to revision at any time. In brief, the groupings are for the purpose of quick identification; *i.e.*, calling to the attention of the teachers that adjusted teaching materials will need to be planned for and used with the majority of these students for certain units of study. Numbers by grades in the groupings for the current semester include:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Placed on Lists</i>	<i>Identified in Sp. Ed. Program</i>	<i>Identified as Remedial Grouping</i>	<i>Remedial Grouping as Related to % Within Grade</i>
7A	90	27	63	14%
8A	76	16	60	13%
9A	42	12	30	8%

PLANNING THE PROGRAM

Listed below is the type of work discussed in the first five meetings of the first session of the workshop and at which time the program was planned.

1st Meeting—Organization of workshop through total group participation

- a. Outline of needs
- b. Partial outline of program

2nd Meeting—Introduction of teaching methods by instructor

- a. Use of remedial lists and grading system
- b. Varying the amount of time in the teaching program (1) Ability groupings within classes; (2) Two part curriculum
- c. Varying the amount of work assigned to pupils—level of difficulty
- d. Reactions to these methods by members of the workshop

Interim Meeting—Organization of next meeting

3rd Meeting—Learning a new concept in a social studies class with techniques incorporated

- a. I.Q. and reading levels
- b. Teacher preparation with or without pupil participation
- c. Grading by the teacher on an individual level

Interim Meeting—Organization of next meetings

4th Meeting—Learning a new concept in a mathematics class with techniques incorporated

- a. Work with manipulative materials
- b. Oral explanations of the use of manipulative materials
- c. Use of a textbook
- d. Developing speed and accuracy

5th Meeting—Techniques of two sixth-grade elementary teachers

- a. Class composition
- b. Developing class attitudes
- c. Grouping pupils
- d. Materials essential to this method of teaching

LAUNCHING THE PROGRAM

The following phases are in the process of being studied, or have been completed by way of launching the program.

a. Recommendations for Helping the Slow Learner in Regular Classes—Early in the workshop, members were asked to be prepared with an exchange of ideas and techniques used regarding students in need of adjusted work. At the sixth and last meeting of the first series, twenty ideas were submitted. Individual teachers are now experimenting with these and others gained through readings within classrooms. Techniques include such ideas as: ability groupings within a given class, individual and group projects based on varying levels of ability, book reports and committee reports based on varying levels of ability, high achievers assisting low achievers, division of class periods to include discussion and instruction for all with a study period where individual supervised instruction may be given.

b. Workshop Summary—A written summary of the first six meetings was prepared by the instructor. This was made available to all members of the workshop.

c. Advisory Committee—An advisory committee of six workshop members was organized to make plans for the work to be carried on during the three-month interim and to advise and plan further for the six meetings to be held during March and April.

d. Bibliography of Reading Materials—A bibliography on ability groupings and adjusted reading materials was prepared and made available to teachers. Members of the workshop selected one or more readings for reports at the next workshop session.

e. Materials—A list of all remedial materials available in Pattengill was prepared and made available to all faculty members. Remedial sets of English, social studies, mathematics, and science were ordered and are now available in the building. Teachers in the various departments were notified accordingly.

f. Planning Instructional Units by Departments—All departments in the academic and elective fields are in the process of working out typical courses of study in which adjusted materials are being incorporated. All teachers are sharing in this project.

g. Letters of Inquiry and Visits to Other Schools—Members of the advisory committee suggested names of the faculty for visitations to schools in other cities to learn techniques employed in dealing with slow learners as we are identifying them. Letters of inquiry were sent and visitations were made.

h. Committee for Remedial Lists and Recommendations for Grading Slow Learners—A questionnaire regarding the preparation of remedial lists and recommendations for grading was prepared and submitted to the entire faculty. Ninety-eight per cent of the faculty favored being furnished with the lists as a means of quick identification and the same percentage favored being able to grade these students with an A, B, C, or D according to their abilities in classes. However, in certain academic classes they also favored being able to grade with a "D—" rather than a failure when students were accomplishing as much as could be expected according to abilities.

EVALUATING THE PROGRAM

The evaluation of the program was discussed when the workshop continued with regularly scheduled meetings during March and April. The

following topics were among those reported on and discussed relative to the slow learner:

- a. Reports from each department on courses of study/study helps for helping the slow learners.
- b. Reports of visitations to other school systems.
- c. Reports of readings in the field of slow learners and ability groupings *via* segregation within a given class.
- d. List of references dealing with ability groupings and ways and means to help remedial or slow learners enlarged and made available to all teachers.
- e. Recommendations and discussion on how we can increase our understanding of the psychological aspects of the slow learning pupil.
- f. Interim teaching-learning activities.
- g. List of ideas from staff for helping students enlarged and made available to all teachers.
- h. Report on recommendations for making of future lists and the grading of these students.
- i. Recommendations as to the actual program to be tried in 1958-59.
- j. Recommendations as to further study for teachers.

CLINICS HELP TEACHERS MAKE TESTS AND INTERPRET RESULTS

The ETS Test Development staff assisted Bloomfield, New Jersey classroom teachers make better tests and to use more wisely the information they get from them. Instead of devoting an entire afternoon to a single workshop, thirteen clinics were set up, each dealing with a different aspect of testing. In the first part of the afternoon five clinics on general testing problems were held. One, for example, dealt with making and scoring essay tests; another, with the development of performance tests; a third, with the interpretation of "teacher made" tests, and so on.

Midway through the afternoon, the teachers regrouped—this time according to their subject matter interests. The ETS consultants pointed out new approaches to assessing achievement in different fields and discussed ways of improving the classroom test which teachers had brought with them. It is still too early to say how much this method of consultation can accomplish. Mr. Solomon believes that the real benefits to the teachers will come as a result of the specific projects that the discussions may have stimulated. During the six weeks following the clinics, teachers sent copies of exams they developed to ETS for review and criticism. The consultants returned to Bloomfield in April for another half-day to help teachers with specific problems.

The consultation "experiment" in Bloomfield is only one of several advisory projects in which members of the ETS staff are currently engaged. In Lebanon, Pennsylvania, for example, ETS consultants helped school representatives analyze their evaluation problems. Out of this came a program designed to increase the ability of local educators to carry on a continuing evaluation program with a minimum of outside help. ETS's Quentin Stodola is now working with lay and professional groups to develop a program for interpreting evaluation and guidance activities to the community at large.—*The Educational Testing Service Developments*, March 1958.

The Substitute Teacher— An Administrative Problem

ALBERT A. BLUM

THE voice on the other end of the telephone wire asks: "Are you available today, Mr. Jones?" With the affirmative answer, another day as a substitute teacher begins. Since there are so many absences per term in any school system, and since in some cases in order to receive a permanent appointment, one has to be a substitute teacher for at least one school year, the life and times of a substitute are of importance. Unfortunately, like most inferior beings, he is often politely but completely ignored. This should not be. Perhaps the best way to study his life is to describe as the "true stories" do, a typical day of a substitute teacher.

The telephone having given its summons, our teacher hurries to the school. He is greeted by the clerk, or a school administrator, given a set of keys when it can be found, and rushed up to the room where the class is often already waiting. As the substitute teacher enters the room, a gleam of sadistic expectation arises on the faces of many of the students.

The new teacher opens the desk and begins his search for the roll book. In the third draw, under sheets of paper, he perhaps discovers it. He calls the roll while the pupils become more and more restless. Then starts the frantic search for the plan book. To be sure, the regular teacher probably took it home the night before or has chosen the most unlikely place to hide it. At last it is found, and as it is about to be examined in order to plan the coming lessons, the bell rings and a new class starts marching in.

The teacher quickly skims through the plan book and in five seconds or less plans a lesson. He then starts—when, lo and behold, the material which according to the plan book is supposed to be covered that day turns out to have been taken up a week ago or should not be discussed until the following week. Confusion reigns triumphant as one student shouts that the assignment was supposed to be one thing and another screams that it was something else while the rest just enjoy themselves or look with a supercilious air at the amateur up front.

Peacefulness restored at the expense of a broken ruler, the spare lesson is brought forth. This is a special creation fit only for substitutes. Let us assume that as a social studies teacher, the substitute teacher is called in to teach mathematics. He then uses his spare lesson as he did when

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there was no plan book. The object of this lesson is not necessarily knowledge nor attitudes, but solely peaceful serenity and the prevention of laryngitis. It might be anything from a lesson on baseball to one on putting up pincurls (both of which I have taught), but it achieves its objective if it keeps the class quiet.

And so the day goes on. The students, knowing that the substitute is there for only a day or two, attempt to take advantage of that fact. The school administrator frequently feels the substitute is there to be a policeman, and grimaces if any attempt is made to teach. The substitute, at first, stumbles along in his attempts to help the students, but frustration after frustration makes him look for the easy way out—a habit which with too many continues on to the days when they become permanent teachers.

I have not discussed the many economic and social reasons for the lack of morale among substitutes. Although this description of a typical day in a substitute's life tells only part of the story, it does show why many of the best substitutes look elsewhere than the school system for permanent positions. Add to this the large number of wasted days for the students and the depressing picture is complete.

What, then, can be done? There are certain simple steps that would help the substitute and reduce waste. *First*, adequate plan books should be prepared and all teachers should be required to leave them in a pre-determined place in their desks. The teacher should keep her plans up to date. If not, she should at least make some notation of what the class is doing. One way this might be done is to appoint one student to be responsible for keeping a record of what the class is doing. *Second*, the teacher should delegate tasks to specific students, and the assignments should be placed prominently in the plan or roll book. *Third*, each school should have mimeographed an instruction sheet which *should be handed* to each substitute as he reports in the morning. This should contain such important information as times for class changes, location of plan books, names and rooms of department chairmen and other supervisors as well as other pertinent information. *Fourth*, if possible, the substitute should be told when he is called what he is going to teach, and, if possible, he should be called to teach subjects related to his own field.

Most of these four points are common requirements in many schools, but, at least in my own experience, they are rarely enforced. If they were, the substitute would find his work much easier.

Fifth, a substitute teacher is employed to teach, not to be a clerk or to carry messages. He needs his free periods to plan the lessons of the day. Although he is the lowest man on the educational totem pole, he wants to be treated with respect—a fact too often forgotten by administrators and other teachers. *Sixth*, the over-helpful teacher next door is sometimes a curse. She is the one who, when she hears a noise, enters the classroom, smiles sweetly at the substitute, then glares at the class and announces that Mr. Jones is visiting for the day, and if they do not behave while he

is here . . . and as soon as she leaves the room, the pupils who were not too bad before realize Mr. Jones has no real authority and take advantage of the fact. The moral of the story is first to ask the substitute quietly if he wants your help and then act accordingly.

Seventh, and most important, is this. The substitute should be expected to teach. In one of my first experiences, an assistant principal informed me that he did not care if I taught or not as long as I kept discipline. This is a shocking attitude. First, the day is wasted for the student. Second, the substitute develops extremely bad habits of teaching which may result in a permanent deterioration of his teaching ideals and methods.

Theoretically, substitute teaching should have two goals. One is to prevent students from wasting a day. The other is to help give the new teacher experience in a classroom situation. Both of these aims are not close to being achieved. The end product has been waste of time for the student, and for the new teacher. Some of this cannot be prevented; but much of it can through a more thoughtful approach on the part of the school administrators, the permanent teaching staff, and the substitute. Through the cooperation of these three, a new face entering a class room may become the signal, not for futility, but for a meaningful day for both the teacher and the student.

400 STUDENTS LEARN SCIENCE OVER KETA-TV

Fifty school systems in fifty Oklahoma towns are using high-school science telecourses now being offered by KETA-TV in cooperation with the Oklahoma City Public Schools. TV courses in chemistry, physics, algebra, trigonometry, and geology are being followed regularly by over 400 students. Classes range in size from one pupil to fifteen, with an average of about five to six in a class. Conducted on a regular school year basis, each TV class is presented for 30 minutes, five times a week. Most of the teachers have been with the TV teaching experiment since its inception two years ago and were chosen by the superintendent of the Oklahoma City Public Schools. School administrators have judged the courses excellent and welcome them as a most useful resource for in-service training for teachers.

Most of the students enrolled in the courses are taking them to equip themselves for college entrance requirements. The students feel the TV class program is as effective, or more effective than regular teaching procedures, according to KETA-TV manager John Dunn. In science teaching, the use of television for demonstrations and experiments is believed to be especially beneficial because the camera can be focused directly on the subject which is therefore clearly visible to the entire class, not just those students in the first few rows. Studies are now underway to compare test scores of TV students with students in regular classrooms taking the same course of study.

Why Applicants Select a Certain School

WARREN M. DAVIS

IN COMMON with many public educational systems in the United States, the Union County Regional schools are faced with an ever-expanding pupil population, necessitating the addition of a considerable number of teachers to the staff each year. For the next several years we must add at least twenty teachers per year, which is an annual increase of about sixteen per cent of our present professional group.

In addition to the actual increase, the normal staff attrition suffered by any school requires that we actually employ each year a varying number of teachers as replacements. It has seemed important, in view of these facts, to attempt to make some determination concerning reasons teachers chose to come to the Regional schools in the face of competing offers from other school systems both nearby and at a distance. *Why Regional?* The answers to this question seem to us to have significance as we attempt to convince top-level candidates that Regional is a good place to teach.

At the present time our Regional district comprises two high schools with a combined enrollment of approximately twenty-four hundred pupils. A third high school is on the drawing boards and a fourth one is contemplated for the more distant future. We face a probable final enrollment of over five thousand high-school pupils. We are organized departmentally with a department head in each curricular area in each of the high schools. Our usual procedure with regard to the screening of candidates is as follows. Every person who expresses interest in our system is sent a small brochure which describes our schools. At the same time we send him an application form. Following receipt of the completed form, initial interviews are carried out either by the superintendent or one of the high-school principals, depending on the subject area of the applicant. The superintendent, a science-mathematics major, with a strong interest in music, carries out the initial interviews of applicants for positions in these fields. One of the high-school principals, a social studies-language major, makes the initial interviews in foreign languages, English, and social studies. The second principal, formerly an industrial arts teacher, is in charge of the initial interviews in that area, in home economics, commercial and business subjects, and in physical education. Teachers who make application in specialized areas such as guidance or special services usually are interviewed first by the superintendent.

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Following the initial interview, the applicant is seen by the cognizant department head or heads, and by at least one more of the three top administrative officers. When possible he is taken on a conducted tour of one or both of the high schools, with particular emphasis on the areas which will be of greatest interest to him as a teacher.

As a result of late summer discussions among the administrative personnel, it was decided to attempt to discover what factors seemed most important to teachers who had chosen to come to Regional this year. Accordingly, early in the second week of school, before the newly employed staff members could forget their original thinking, a short questionnaire was given to each one new to the system with a request that it be checked and returned, either with or without signature. It was requested that signatures be used only if certain accompanying questions called for action by the administration.

The choices listed on the questionnaire were those usually mentioned when teachers are asked their reasons for accepting a position or for leaving one position in favor of another. Additionally, space was left so that teachers could supply their own answers, as several of them did. Twenty-seven new teachers returned completed questionnaires, although not all had checked all of the spaces. Thus there are less than twenty-seven responses to some of the factors. A tabulation of the completed questionnaires follows:

Certain tabulations of answers were somewhat surprising to the investigators. It is noted, for example, that in point of number who listed it as *very important*, "Salaries" took second place to "Personality of interviewers." It should not be inferred from this isolated instance that any one item is in actuality of greater or lesser importance in the eyes of teachers merely because a greater or lesser number of individuals listed it as of "Very Important" rank.

Certain specific items tend to bear out this conclusion. For example, the retirement system of New Jersey, one of the nation's most liberal, showed five of the twenty-seven responses as "Not considered." It is almost a safe conclusion that the five who said that they did not consider this item are individuals who already are members of the New Jersey State Retirement System; therefore, they did not need to consider it. The same may be said for certain other items, as for instance, "Location near metropolitan area," which is mentioned so often by teaching candidates from other parts of the nation who seek to find positions in this area. The fact that five of the candidates did not consider "size of classes" was a surprise to the investigators.

The additional "write-in" reasons which had a bearing on teachers' desire to come to Regional are given just as they are listed although some of them could be, without too great license, translated into one or another of the eleven stated factors. Our reason for keeping them separate and as stated is so that we may study the fine shades of meaning which the individuals in question felt when they listed them separately.

TO ALL TEACHERS NEW TO THE UNION COUNTY REGIONAL
SCHOOL SYSTEM

While you still are so new that first impressions are with you, I would like to have you answer a few questions in order that we may be helped in future years.

You need not sign this form unless you request specific help which we can't give unless we know who is asking for the assistance.

What factors were taken into consideration when you chose to accept a position in the Regional Schools rather than go elsewhere?

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Very Important</i>	<i>Of Some Importance</i>	<i>Not Important</i>	<i>Not Considered</i>
1. Salaries	18	8	1	
2. Retirement system	10	9	2	5
3. Condition of buildings	12	14	1	
4. Lack of "politics" in school system	15	4	1	6
5. Presentation in brochure	4	10	4	7
6. Personality of interviewers	20	5	2	
7. Board planning for school growth	14	9	2	1
8. Location near metropolitan area	6	12	4	5
9. Colleges and universities in the area	4	15	1	6
10. Size of classes	5	13	3	5
11. Guidance program	9	8	3	6
<hr/>				
12. Available facilities		1		
13. Transportation facilities	2			
14. Future in teaching	1			
15. Sports program		1		
16. Educational facilities	1			
17. Salary increases	1			
18. District's desire for well-trained teachers	1			
19. Type of community	1			
20. Size of school	1			
21. Treatment of discipline problems	1			
22. Family reason	1			
23. Social class of children	1			
24. Congeniality of teachers	1			

From them we may learn some few things which will be of value to us in succeeding years.

The second portion of the report from the new teachers had to do with their feeling about their new situation based on a few days of experience. Here we attempted to get the teachers to give us their reactions to the school's orientation program while they were still in the midst of the "big blooming confusion" which marks the first few days in a new and strange position.

Comments given by the teachers have directed our attention to the need for doing just a little more of the same type of thing we have been doing for some time. A little more personal attention is needed, a little more opportunity is needed for the teachers to be together on a social footing during the first day or so, a little more time is needed for the department heads to give valuable and much appreciated assistance, and a little more orientation to the buildings and grounds seems advisable.

At the risk of requiring some paper work at a time when beginning teachers were burdened with detail, we feel that we have discovered several bits of information which will help us as we attempt to interest good candidates for teaching positions in our Regional schools and which will enable us to give those who accept the feeling that they "belong."

NEW FILM ON AFRICA

A new film, *African Giant*, a 30-minute color document offers a panoramic report on sixteen countries of Africa, South and East of the Sahara, visited by Congressman Bolton as a ranking minority member of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. This film portrays the peoples, geography, governments, social and economic problems, as well as the promise of an awakening Africa. This film is narrated in its entirety by Mrs. Bolton who interviews heads of state and many people of the continent. Pictured also is the important contribution of church and missionary groups. In the words of Mrs. Bolton, the main objective of the film is "... to acquaint more and more Americans with the need to learn more and more about Africa." It is hoped that *African Giant* will bring a better understanding of Africa with its 200,000,000 people, and help erase some of the misconceptions Americans have of the so-called "Dark Continent." A printed copy of Mrs. Bolton's narration will be made available as a guide for classroom and other showings. The sixteen countries visited include: French West Africa, Liberia, Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroons, French Equatorial Africa, Belgian Congo, Angola, Northern Rhodesia, South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia. National distribution is being undertaken by Educational Services, 1730 Eye Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., on both a sales and rental basis: Sales price, \$195.; rental, \$10.

The Public Be Informed About the Junior High School

HENRY ANTELL

MORE than any other division of a school system, the junior high schools must continue to hammer away at the public's subliminal consciousness so that it will be accepted without equivocation as the proper agency for teaching the early adolescents. In the educational scheme of things the junior high school is comparatively new. The adult citizenry in the main is still 8-4 minded because that is the way they were brought up. Only time will solidify our hold. Until then it behooves us to keep our better foot forward as a permanent fixture.

It is not beyond the realm of possibility for a sudden economy wave to pick on education's newest infant as its sacrificial lamb. Nor can we be certain that our schools can withstand an unusual adolescent crime spree. Newspaper sensationalism as well as political opportunism can combine to destroy that which dedicated educators are certain is the best medium for meeting the needs of early adolescence, the junior high schools.

We should get busy and stay busy. The major portion of our program should be involved with sound public relations. Our parents and other community members must be informed. Communication is vital. We should see to it that we are an essential part of community life. And we should also make certain that the community never is permitted to forget that we are an important part of all that goes on. Let us now consider the means of accomplishing this.

WORK WITH OUR PARENTS

A parent organization is as much a part of a school as is the teaching staff. Its strength depends chiefly upon the support and inspiration of the principal. Occasionally a socially sensitive group of parents will keep it afloat. But for positive action in which it becomes a vital force, it needs continual stimulation.

It is axiomatic that children coming from homes which think well of the school program will apply themselves conscientiously to their tasks. When parents, who know the school and in fact work closely with it, keep extolling its virtues, we can be sure that Mary and John are going to be happy to attend. They become willing learners and enthusiastic participants in school life.

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Even if there were no other reasons for parent cooperation than the effects upon their children, it would be essential to build and sustain it. There are of course other reasons. The parents compose a large segment of the community. Their good-will helps us obtain an adequate school budget. The school is the community's pride. It is a principal's responsibility to nurture this pride and to feed it. The education of children cannot be undertaken by the schools alone; parents must play an indispensable part. They should be aware of what is being taught so that they can supplement it.

Periodic meetings, preferably in the evening when fathers may attend, are a necessity. At these meetings a cohesiveness and unity may be built through announcements of the principal, discussions of various phases of the school program, and questions and answers. Outside speakers may be obtained. Occasionally, students may perform. These meetings are planned by parents and school administrators. While the teachers may not be able to attend all of them, they should be encouraged to come at least to one. A schedule set up at the beginning of the year will indicate which teachers will attend particular meetings. Parents will like that.

A parents' bulletin issued monthly becomes a news gazette. A calendar of school activities will always appear. A message by the principal, some newsworthy school events, will help inform parents. While the Bulletin is a parent publication, its quality will be enhanced by encouraging suggestions from the principal. Parents are more touched by warm praise than are the children.

Parent observations of school work should be arranged at least twice a year. These are the formal Open School Week visits. Tremendous enthusiasm can be generated in our parents as a result of them.

Parent interviews with teachers may follow each report card rating period. This need not take time from the students inasmuch as the regular unassigned periods may be used. Setting up these interviews in the teachers' cafeteria over a cup of coffee is in keeping with the friendly spirit that should pervade these meetings. The Curriculum Committee of parents will plan a series of workshop sessions at which the administration should be most happy to explain and clarify its program. Six such sessions, occurring possibly on the first Tuesday of each month from October through March, might deal successively with science, mathematics, English, social studies, foreign language, and fine and practical arts. These are six areas which can be taken up not only by the administration, but also by the teachers themselves. Involving teachers, administrators, and parents in common activities is extremely useful. Here is an activity then with an obvious multiple purpose.

Other plans to involve parents and to spread the school message will readily come to mind. For example, some enterprising parent may think of organizing a child-study group. Other parents will handle fund-raising drives to add books to the library or paintings to bare walls. A

faculty-parent committee might eagerly undertake the production of a Parents Handbook which will give in some detail the rudiments of the school program as well as an outline of the many facets of work of the Parents Association. All of these activities will find parent and school working alongside of one another and contributing to mutual good-will.

WORK WITH THE COMMUNITY

As go the parents, so goes the community. We can be sure the parents will sing the school's praises to the butcher and the baker. This will enhance the reputation of the school and solidify its hold on the hearts of the citizenry. It cannot be taken for granted, however. More can be done. The savings bank will be happy to become an exhibit center for student activities. Art of talented pupils, shop crafts, prize-winning poems or essays, performance of choral group or orchestra—all these will receive an excellent reception.

Certain school clubs will want to carry on community drives. A civic club will be interested in a sanitation campaign. Another will sponsor a get-out-the-vote drive. Our youngsters will be learning valuable lessons in community participation while adding to the stature of the school. Opportunities to take part in community councils or to speak at businessmen's clubs or women's groups should be welcomed by the junior high-school principal. It is only proper that we lend our talents to efforts for community betterment while at the same time projecting the school reputation still further.

The school belongs to the townspeople. Its facilities should be used by them. An evening community center will feature athletics, dancing, forums, and a series of courses designed to improve various skills from bridge to auto maintenance.

WORK WITH THE PRESS, RADIO, TV

A colleague has an arrangement with his local newspaper whereby one page each week will be devoted strictly to news of his junior high school. All the items are contributed by the school and are written by one of the reporters working in collaboration with the faculty adviser. What a bounty! Here is advertising and good-will handed to us on a silver platter!

Members of the working press need news; it is their life-blood. There is no room for the idea that no news is good news. No news from you may mean news from another source and you may not like it.

An assistant should have as one of his major responsibilities, the publicity assignment. He should feed the press interesting bits of information. He might encourage a staff member to write up a crowning event or a topical highlight. The school journal or literary publication will be sent regularly to the newspapers. Often some bit of interesting news is culled directly from these sources.

The TV will welcome the school operetta or dance festival which is colorful or picturesque. The school should not overlook this excellent medium for displaying its wares before a large audience. All it needs is a telephone call or a letter in which a hint is dropped that we have something which people will like to see.

Now and then a pupil misses his graduation exercises because of an unfortunate accident necessitating a hospital stay. The newspapers will be happy to picture an informal bedside ceremony at which the principal gives the diploma to the pupil in the presence of parents, nurses, and other patients. It need not be a graduation; it could come at some other time of the year when some pupil is hospitalized and receives a gift from his classmates. These are human interest stories that keep the school alive and boost its morale.

WORK WITH THE STUDENTS

Not the least of the assets in a good publicity program are the students. They are the real good-will ambassadors. If they are happy and contented they reflect this feeling in their homes and their neighborhoods. Student government, active clubs, festive events such as bazaars, festivals and dances add spice to their activities. An athletic program, culminating in a Field Day, is a delight to adolescents.

Junior high-school pupils in particular will have a strong sense of loyalty to a school which they feel is administered in their interest. This loyalty will in turn be translated into a vigorous academic program. The youngsters, armed with pride in their school, will attack their studies with greater zeal and effort.

A cycle can be seen here. Students who think well of their school will try to do well in their studies. They will carry home with them the fine school reputation. Their parents, infected with the enthusiasm of the school's program, will try to achieve a high standard of Parents Association activity. This will further improve the activities that affect the youngsters. The community, reflecting the parental interest, will take the school to its heart and will become its staunch friend. In a community such as this, a principal can look forward to years of strong support for all of the objectives which he deems educationally worth while.

CONCLUSION

The junior high schools need a vigorous public relations program. Parents, community, the press, the youngsters—all are important cogs in such a program. A principal who is aware of its great importance will never overlook an opportunity to help it along.

Constant encouragement to parents, as well as close ties to all their activities, comes first. We can do a great deal with them if we give them intelligent direction.

The community consists of the parents plus many others who have no direct contact with the schools. The principal who understands the uniqueness of his particular community will become an integral part of its life and thus gain its friendship and good will.

The newspapers and television are waiting to tell a story. A school can plant many a story. It should remain ever alert to the vast opportunities that occur.

Finally, our young people, who are the school and are the ultimate benefactors of all that the school does well, stand forth as our best public relations agents. They will spread our story far and wide. It behooves us to give them a good story, one in which they are enthusiastic and productive main characters.

NATIONAL MERIT SCHOLARSHIPS

The first round of the nation's most intensive teenage talent hunt opened this spring as a record-shattering number of high-school students turned out for the National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test. Final registration for the examinations, which began in 15,000 high schools on April 29, reached 575,000. Second-semester juniors and first-semester seniors were eligible to take the test. An estimated \$5 million in Merit Scholarships and other awards are at stake in the national competition, now beginning its fourth year. Some \$12 million in Merit Scholarships have been awarded in the first three years of the program. Merit Scholarships are provided by some 80 corporations, foundations, professional societies, and individuals, as well as by the National Merit Scholarship Corporation itself, which conducts the competition..

A group of 10,000 students—composed of the highest scorers in each state—will advance to the Semifinals next fall. Semifinalists will then take a second examination. Those who repeat their high performance on the second examination will become Finalists in the program and will indicate their choice of college and course of study. Further evaluation of their grades, citizenship, and extra-curricular achievements will follow and the winners will be announced in the spring of 1959.

Test results for all students taking the NMSQT were reported to schools this fall in time for use by seniors and their class advisors. The scores may also be used in many high schools to help students make decisions about college and the most appropriate courses to major in. Many students throughout the country who do not expect to win have registered in order to learn more about their individual strengths and weaknesses. Five individual scores will be reported: Knowledge of vocabulary, ability in mathematics and quantitative thinking, ability to read and comprehend the social and natural sciences, and usage of English. —*National Merit Scholarship Corporation*, Evanston, Illinois, May 2, 1958.

The School Administrator as a Community Leader of Social Growth

RAYMOND W. BARBER

WE are living in a transitional period in a bi-polar world with suburbs in outer space. Conflicting political, economic, social, and religious philosophies make up the community and world in the twentieth century. There seem to be more active forces affecting education today than at any previous time in American education history. There is more tension, uncertainty, conflict, questioning, doubting, cynicism, and downright negativism than some of us would like to admit. "Let's knock eggheads" has been a very popular parlor game with the follow-the-leader set.

The school administrator is a victim of his world. He cannot escape it and should not try. He must continue as a community leader, as a citizen, as a professional educator, and as a human being in a relentlessly shrinking universe. With each advance of the physical sciences, some new members of the "Why Don't They . . ." Brotherhood of Universal Critics learn to parrot the trite words of the ritual.

Black as this picture may seem, tensions do not necessarily block growth; instead, they may be the evidence of educational progress. They are symptomatic of growth, vigor, and life itself. The fact that the school or community is in the midst of conflict, of variation of opinion, suggests that no one element in culture is completely dominant. Differences of opinions and of desired goals result in community growth, but serious, unwarranted attacks upon community institutions can only result in confusion.

The educational leader is concerned with the causes of tension, prejudice, and conflict in his community. Why is it that groups attack the schools, religion, cultures, and minorities? Is it the struggles for social, political, and economic status by many groups, thus leading to the fictions about superiority and inferiority among men? Is it the sense of insecurity and recognition of our own lacks that cause us to seek the crutch of bigotry and prejudice as a means of scapegoating? Is it to exploit the power factor in social groups, the neighborhood, the church, and the club for political, social, or economic ends? Is it the band wagon effect of crowd psychology?

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The forward looking administrator is concerned with helping the many diverse groups of his community find ways of working together or at least working in parallel lines and thus removing the Trojan horse of internal conflict. There are many areas of community leadership where the administrator may have a definite role in inter-group understanding. As the chief school officer, he is expected to formulate school policy with the school board and speak for the school whenever it is involved in community conflict.

As the social engineer of the community, the wise school leader is attune to the human relations climate of the community. A fluctuating social barometer can easily be held at a constant sea-level reading by observing the following suggestions:

Keep the channels of social communication open between the school and the community: between the administrator and the classroom; between the administrative office and the average citizen.

Reduce "grapevines" to a minimum by keeping channels open. Grapevine news mounts as channels of communication become clogged.

Help guarantee participation by the school board, the PTA, the teachers association, citizens groups, and special interests.

Share in planning by co-workers. They are part and parcel of what the school represents.

Have clearly defined policies, decisions, and practices, with no palace guard or court favorites.

Remember that candor, cooperation, and an open-door policy are prerequisites to professional leadership of high order.

Remember that people become interested in and excited about only those things with which they become emotionally and spiritually identified. As a coordinator, he can stimulate the identification process—but not as a soloist. Schools are no longer just places for children to attend and recite. He must provide opportunities for an interchange of ideas among the many factions represented by the student body. As a promoter of unity within the diverse groups of the community, the administrator must avoid stratification of these groups. He must use the school to unify the community rather than adhere to cleavages and alignments which may threaten and thwart social growth on a community-wide basis. Democracy means Americans of all classes, creeds, and beliefs. It means avoiding cliques. It means involving all groups.

As defender and interpreter of traditional function of the school, the administrator must endeavor to build an enlightened community of citizens. The public needs, in some communities, to re-learn that the public school in non-sectarian, not Protestant, not Catholic, not godless, not atheistic, not partisan to racial differences, but it still may have great spiritual force and influence. Schools should point out and interpret non-sectarian life in general, the unity of neighborhood living, the variety of racial mixtures in our culture, and the normality of gregariousness in human nature. Let it be shown that what the students badly need is not more sectarianism in education, but more spirituality in the home and more genuine faith and belief in the church of his

choosing. The administrator, through the schools, can help the pupil and his parents to see the vital necessity of preserving his sectarianism, his racial inheritances, his political partisanship, while remaining spiritually a brother and a fellow community dweller in a unifying world.

As a stimulator of constructive deliberation on improvement of understanding, the administrator must know the human relations temperament of the community. Are there groups already functioning who are concerned with human relations? Is there an interest in checking bigotry and making studies of inter-group cooperation? What is the racial and religious complexion of the community? What are the minority group problems? Are nationalistic discriminations common? What are employment and recreation policies?

Within the school, the administrator must be concerned with many human relations problems. Is there any consideration given to problems of human relations and inter-group understanding in the program of curriculum development? If not, why not? Is the school library equipped with shelves on intercultural materials? Is the school library censored because of fear of criticism from religious, civic (?), and fraternal groups? Is the question of harmful small cliques and fraternity groups frankly dealt with and corrected if they exist? Is the PTA concerned with the social adaptations and adjustments necessary to make parents of minority groups welcome? Are the schools associated with churches, clubs, associations, and committees in helping bring speakers to explore bi-racial issues, inter-group cooperation, housing, recreation, and employment?

The social growth of a school and community under the leadership of the school administrator is indicative of the type of leadership presented. In a world community such as we now live, there is no room for an apathetic approach to the problem of social relations. In considering the treatment of social problems, the school administrator must first consider what is right or best for all the children of the community. From such action, criticism will come, but all social leaders throughout history have had to endure the slander and verbal brickbats of those who were reactionary bigots. He cannot stand on his rights as an administrator without first looking at the rights of the children with and for whom he works. Slowly but surely, through such community leadership, world understanding is coming, and there is a growing respect for human personality and the dignity of man. Ideas which fight upstream today, spawn in the clear fresh water of tomorrow.

The School's Responsibility for Its Students in Public Places

LOUIS J. HART

LEGALLY the school has no responsibility for the behavior of its students in theaters, restaurants, soda bars, and other public places or on the streets after school hours. Almost everyone will agree that it is a definite parental responsibility. However, just as a company is judged by the product it sells, schools are judged by the behavior of their students. Misbehavior by a few of the students invariably brings discredit to all the students of a school. People see a fight on the street corner and they do not say, "I saw some teenage boys fighting on the street corner." Too often they say, "I saw some XYZ High School students fighting on the street corner", or "I saw some XYZ Junior High School boys fighting in the streets". Ninety-nine percent of the students could be home in bed, but, if one per cent is roaming the streets at night, the story would be that "the students of XYZ School are roaming the streets at night."

Another bad feature of this unfair criticism of a school pertains to the facts of the affair. In many cases a small incident is built into a major catastrophe as the story is passed from one set of lips to another, but throughout the various tellings of the story the school is always mentioned. Recently there was a fight on the street corner between two students of a school. By the time the story got back to the school, it was a riot involving a hundred boys of the school.

So it can be seen that, although the school has no legal responsibility for its students in public places after school hours, it has a responsibility to protect its reputation and that of its student body. The question arises now as to how this can be done. This involves a problem. Having no legal responsibility, the school has no legal authority over its students after school hours.

Recently in our community a situation developed which caused many parents to do some evaluation. Stories circulated about the behavior of "Memorial Junior High School students" in a local theater on Friday nights. As usual, the stories were exaggerated, but many parents became duly excited and concerned. The PTA sponsored a panel discussion. The local high-school auditorium was filled to capacity. During the discussion, it seemed to be the consensus that the responsibility for the behavior of the students lies with the parents and with the management of the public places which cater to teenagers. This panel and the people in attendance did not feel that the school has any responsibility toward this behavior problem. However, some people thought that, if the school provided

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more extracurricular activities—particularly Friday night dances—this would help.

Just what should the school do and not do to help in its students' behavior in public places? First, it can educate both in home room and in classes. This can be done particularly well in the early junior high-school age when the students are very impressionable. Home-room programs can be built around the theme of behavior in public places. This also can be discussed in social studies classes or in any other class where the situation may present itself.

Second, the PTA can help with a program much like the one mentioned previously. If the PTA so desires, it can sponsor and chaperon night social activities. It must be remembered that the function of the school's extracurricular activities is educational. It is not the duty of the school to baby sit with its students to keep them off the streets.

Third, the student council can set up a code of behavior for students in public places. When this was done in our school, the students were required to take home a copy of this code to be read and discussed with their parents. To a certain extent this took away the typical teenage argument of, "Betty's mother lets her stay out until one o'clock; why can't I?" The code of behavior as written by the members of the student council is presented on the following page.

Probably the first three suggestions mentioned will not have too much effect on those students who are going to be the troublemakers outside the school. Their parents probably will neither belong to nor attend the PTA meeting; in most cases, these students would not attend Friday night dances; and, to them, the code of behavior is just a "big joke." The matter here falls into the hands of the school administration.

When incidents occur involving students from a school, the principal or assistant principal must make a thorough investigation to separate facts from fiction. This may take time, but the reputaton of the school is worth it. When the facts have been determined, the student or students should be called in for counseling. This may involve calling the parents in also. Punitive measures cannot be used since the school has no legal authority over incidents in this area. If the students or parents object to this counseling, they can be shown that the school is acting for the student's benefit as well as for the good of the school. They should be shown that the school wishes to help the student, not punish him.

If outside authorities such as the police and the juvenile court are involved, the school can cooperate with these agencies. If the incident involves a local place of business such as a theater, cooperation of the owner with the school can often prevent further incidents from occurring.

Cooperation of the local newspaper can be helpful. It is not necessary for a newspaper to mention students involved in an incident as "students of XYZ School." The school had no more to do with the incident than a company has to do with a crime committed by one of its employees when he is not at his place of employment.

MEMORIAL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CODE OF BEHAVIOR

1. We believe that week-day nights should be reserved for the home so that we can be a part of the family unit and fulfill our educational obligations to the school. Because of this, we should go out on the streets at night only when absolutely necessary and with the approval of our parents. A seventh-grade student should be home by 9:00 P.M., an eighth and ninth grader should be home by 9:30 or 10:00 P.M.

2. We believe that weekends should be spent in some planned activity either at home, at a friend's home, or in a parent-approved place of public entertainment, and never just roaming the streets. Seventh graders should be home by 10:00 P.M., eighth graders by 11:00 P.M., and ninth graders by 11:30 P.M. These hours are in order only if attending an organized parent-approved party. When attending a place of public entertainment, we should return home one-half hour after the event unless we have received our parents' permission to do otherwise. We feel that parents should not grant this privilege unless they are completely informed as to our plans.

3. We believe that when a party is given by a person for his or her invited guests, uninvited guests should not "crash" the party or make themselves a nuisance at the home where the party is given.

4. We believe that behavior in public places is reflective! When you call attention to yourself in public places, you are behaving in an unmannerly way. We repeat that the student body of Memorial Junior High School should always be considerate of other persons and, consequently, not interfere with the rights and privileges of others.

5. We believe that our parents should make our homes available when possible for our teenage functions. This would give us more opportunities for activities on weekends. Also we would like to have our friends enjoy themselves as guests in our homes. Parents should be in the home when parties are given, but should keep in mind that we feel that we are trusted.

6. We believe that we should always tell our parents where we are going, what people will be present, and when we are returning home. If for any reason of necessity there is a change in our plans, we should always call home and inform our parents of the change and why.

The school is not a rehabilitation center; its business is education; however, any schoolman worth the name of teacher will do all in his power to straighten out wayward students. There are thousands of successful people today who, having made a mistake as a youth, were put back on the right road by a teacher or an administrator. Many of these people were normal students in school, but made their mistake outside the school.

A school is the student body and not the building that houses it. The students are our business and our livelihood. Their success or failure and behavior or misbehavior are of paramount concern regardless of where or when it takes place. On this we will be judged. It is the number one measure of the effectiveness of our educational system. If our batting average is low in this area, we don't deserve the name "professional."

Maintaining a Clean Lunch Area

NORMAN SCHACHTER

FEEL frustrated facing that filthy food lunch area five days a week? Does the bedraggled untidiness make you want to throw in the sponge? Don't do it! Squeeze that sponge a little harder with a few more "gimmicks" to clean up the messy hotchpotch in the eating area. Don't join the groups which have taken up the tune "if you can't beat them, join them."

Certainly it takes constant prodding and supervision to maintain a healthy eating environment and a clean lunch area. No matter how large a school or how small an enrollment, the cry is ever-increasing that the "area is so dirty that we should just close it up." Here at Fulton Junior High School we have changed the tune and have developed a workable and healthful environment in our lunch area.

Our school has run the gamut of techniques in an attempt to "clean-up" the problem. We've conducted the usual educational program stressing the value of cleanliness. Classes in English, science, and social studies have developed themes of "why" keep the area clean. Math sections have figured out the mathematical percentages of how often trays, food, milk cartons, and candy wrappers are left by careless characters in the lunch area. Physical education classes have stressed the health factor. No matter what the offering was, the students were interested, worked out the percentages, but still we came up with the low score. Perhaps the concentrated, continuous, and contented program of education put on wasn't of sufficient strength. We doubt it though. All the evidence necessary to convince us that publicity is not the final answer is to scan the billboards, listen to the radio, and watch television tell people not to drive too fast nor to litter the highways. The printed word is ever-powerful, but not too effective as a deterring factor for carelessness. Words never have cleaned up a school lunch area.

Along with our emphasis in educating the youngsters toward clean habits, we carried on the usual art-and-sign campaign. Slogans were devised, limericks were created, posters were raised, and the food was still dropped.

The third stage employed by us was usually the step used by other schools as *the final one*. We closed the sale of items which could be dropped to create litter and debris. Students were also stationed, police

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fashion, to watch every table to discover offenders who consciously or unconsciously forgot a food tray, sack bag, or milk carton. That worked. But it wasn't the healthy type of a solution we wanted. Constant patrol and police methods in a lunch area tend to lessen school moral and to build up tensions in other school areas. Our solution was brought about by trial and error. It was quite a trial and we made many errors.

Fulton Junior High School has an enrollment of 2,250 students. The lunch area is not nearly large enough to handle that enrollment. As a result, we are on a schedule which allows for two lunch periods. This splits the enrollment in two. Half of the student body (the B7, A7, and B8 pupils) eat during the first lunch period. The second lunch period takes care of the upper division people (A8, B9, and A9 students). The over-all time for the lunch periods are of the same length as the other class periods throughout the day. In other words, the lower division students eat lunch fifth period while the upper division pupils are in regularly assigned classes. Sixth-period lunch brings out the upper division people for lunch, and the lower division students go to regularly assigned classes.

Not only were we confronted by the "unclean area" problem, but just as significant was the problem of how to control the youngsters during fifth-period lunch when they straggled out to the play area for a very active noon program. Those who didn't go to the play area were helped along after twenty-five minutes of the period had elapsed. It was then necessary to clean up the area for the next lunch group. The activity program was also necessary as the students had to keep occupied and to expend their tremendous energy.

It has been advisable and necessary for our over-all school curriculum to schedule six regular physical education classes. This meant that, during fifth period, both the "eaters" and the assigned classes were sharing the "black top" and field area. You can well appreciate the confusion of running a class and running off "lunchers" from the teaching stations. "Non-strips" had a field day getting lost in the shuffle with the lunch students. However, let us just show how we achieved our goal of cleaning up the lunch area.

THE CADET CORPS

Two of our shop teachers came up with the idea that a *Cadet Corps* could manage the lunch clean-up and also supervise the school safety program. One would sponsor the lower division corps and would be the lunch-area supervisor (for assistance to the boys) for fifth period; the other would do the same for the sixth period. The Cadets would serve as the "safeties" not only for lunch periods, but also for various assignments throughout the school day. This would start with definite posts before school, during school, and also after school.

The "safety" program has been used in many schools, but we changed the entire concept of that type of organization and its workings. We

decided to go all-out. A regular organization was formed, strengthened through strong administrative backing, and through prestige building by the teachers. Standards were drawn up and it became an honor to become a Cadet.

The problem of communication which always beats most organizational programs from becoming a success was removed by creating a lower division home room and an upper division home room for the Cadets of respective levels. As we were on a home-room schedule anyway, it wasn't too difficult to set up the mechanics.

Students are now carried on the rolls of their regularly assigned and official home-room roster. They report to their regular home room on the first day of school for program making. They then become inactive as far as being a member of that home room is concerned. These students are picked up on the rolls of the respective Cadet home room on the second day. They report to this room during their home-room period. The only other time the students do not report to the new home room is on report card day when they return to their original home room to get their report cards. In this way the Cadet home rooms are composed of students from different grade levels. This insures a daily contact of the sponsor and the members. Our faculty has especially favored a plan of this type. Prior to this type of organization, the sponsor had to call students out of regularly assigned classes if he wished to speak to the Cadet. This has cut down classroom interruptions as far as this program is concerned. Now the supervising sponsor sees his boys daily and various problems of supervision and clean-up are discussed. They can shift areas of supervision and can also strengthen posts whenever there has been more trouble than usual. Everyone has this daily contact with one another. As we flip our home rooms (upper division home rooms have nutrition while lower division meets), we have had little trouble having students on duty at all times. Now, let's go clean up the lunch area!

The sponsors of the Cadet home rooms are assigned a period as lunch supervision. It counts as a teaching period. Of course, he is the home-room teacher for his respective group. The teacher assists in keeping order in the lunch lines, prevents horseplay by moving around the area, aids in the line directions, and most important, acts as an overseer for the lunch period. The success of the program is determined greatly by the teacher in charge. Fortunately, we now have two persons to handle the entire program. They keep polishing and refining the mechanics constantly. Without them, it would be difficult to obtain the success that has been accomplished.

The student Cadets carry out the program as set-up by the student council. These Cadets are chosen by application (Form A) and teacher checksheets (Form B). They are identified by a distinctive sash. Their duties are many. They help maintain order, direct students in proper procedures, and give citations to violators. *They are the people who direct offenders in cleaning up the area.*

FORM A—CADET APPLICATION

 ROBERT FULTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
 APPLICATION FOR CADETS

 Name.....H.R.....Grade Now.....Date.....
 (Print)

Citizenship					Ability to assume responsibility			Can afford to miss 5 min. of class time		
Period	Subject	Good	Fair	Poor	Good	Fair	Poor	Yes	No	Teachers Sig.
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										
7.										
H.R.										

I hereby promise to obey and enforce the safety rules of Robert Fulton Junior High School to the best of my ability.

Applicant's Signature.....

Parent's Approval.....

Different members of our faculty are also assisting in helping the Cadets do their jobs in the lunch area. The entire faculty shares this experience as it is a revolving duty whereby a faculty member goes on duty (to assist the Cadets only when necessary) twelve minutes every day for a two week period out of every six weeks. The lunch problem, of course, doesn't start until the youngsters have finished eating and neglected to clean up the area. Here's where this program really goes to work. Our forms do all the work.

The citation blanks (Form C) are used by members of the Cadet Corps for any school offense listed on Form D. The Cadet turns in the citation (Form C) to his sponsor. The sponsor in turn places the pick-up card (Form D) with the offense listed into the offender's home-room teacher's box. The teacher hands it to the student during the next home-room period so there is no excuse as "I never received it." At this time the

FORM C—CITATION BLANK

CITATION

Post No. _____ Date _____

Patrol Member _____

Offender's Name _____

Home Room: _____

Teacher _____

Number _____

Description of Offense: _____

Attitude of Offender:

Good [] Fair [] Poor []

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The student offender brings the card to the lunch supervisor at the pick-up bench. A Cadet is assigned to oversee the work. The card is punched by this Cadet in charge when the student's pick-up assignment for that day is completed and inspected. He is only given a certain area to clean up and to have ready for inspection. The cards are kept by the Cadet when they are turned in for punching.

If a student neglects or forgets to report for pick-up, his penalty is explained on the back side of the card. The Cadet in charge checks the absence list to see if an absence is legal. If a student forgets to report for pick-up two consecutive days or after a warning, his "privilege" to pick-up is revoked. He is then sent to the vice-principal's office where some other form of therapy is utilized. We have an unusual social adjustment program (explained in the November 1957, issue of the Bulletin, pages 53-60) and students are quite often assigned "non-social" lunch. They may be assigned social adjustment for noon guidance as we count lunch period as a class period.

As soon as a person finishes lunch, he is permitted to go to the field area. Throughout the period, students are leaving the lunch area to go to the field. *No food is permitted out of the lunch area.* Thirty minutes after the start of the period, the entire lunch area is cleared of students. This is done by a whistle. Conditioning has taken care of it very adequately.

FORM D—PICK-UP CARD HANDED TO STUDENT BY HOME-ROOM TEACHER

NAME _____

H. R. _____

START DATE _____

You have been assigned pick-up for the reason checked below. Present this card at above date to PICK-UP BENCH.

☐ Out of Bounds☐ Refuse to pick up☐ Locker Rm. Violation☐ Fighting☐ Food over Line☐ Throwing Food☐ Running☐ Sitting on walls or tables☐ Other☐ Uncooperative

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

FORM E—RULES FOR STUDENT TO FOLLOW

Reverse Side of Form D

This is your notice of pick-up. Take this card to the pick-up bench where you will be assigned an area. Do not start your pick-up until the whistle blows. When your area has been cleaned, wait at your area for inspection. If your area is clean, your card will be punched. The punching of this card is your only evidence of credit. If you have more than one-day pick-up, you are to report to the bench the next day for your assignment. For each day you miss pick-up, one day is added, except in cases of school absence or written excuses.

DO NOT LOSE THIS CARD

At the whistle, students who have received pick-up citations go to the pick-up bench and get assigned areas to clean-up. Cadets determine if the area is sufficiently laundered to get the card punched. Ten minutes are required to "sponge and shampoo" the entire lunch area and to get it ready for the next lunch period. The only work the custodial staff does at this time is to empty the refuse cans. A wash down is done by them after the last lunch period or when school is dismissed.

It's a most inexpensive program to handle. All the equipment necessary is a clip-board for slips, a whistle, a punch for pick-up cards, brooms for the sweepers, a shovel, and an electric loud speaker (megaphone type) for announcements and an attention-getter. Our forms do all the work.

Not only have the pick-up cards cleaned up the area, created a strong safety program, raised the prestige of students working for themselves, but it also has relieved the vice-principal's office from handling many minor violations. The students have devised their own series of pick-up days for various offenses and the program is self-worked.

CONCLUSION

Naturally it doesn't solve all the problems that go with a dirty lunch area. Perhaps it isn't the best educational way to do things. However, it gets the area clean and it is the best one we have found workable after a number of solutions attempted. Perhaps the scene I overheard on a plane best describes what I want to say.

Last football season I had occasion to fly to New York to officiate a football game at Yankee Stadium. On the flight several men were playing bridge and were enjoying themselves. One interested bystander kept finding fault with one of the player's bidding and playing. His heckling and corrections kept up for over a thousand miles. I thought the heckled one had remarkable restraint and patience. Finally, the player who didn't do things by the book bid seven no-trump. The harasser, of course, thought he should have bid seven spades. However, seven no-trump was made.

"You should have bid seven spades, for that was the proper bid," said the kibitzer.

"I made my bid, didn't I?" replied the bidder.

"Yes, you did. But—if you had played it correctly, you would have been down two tricks."

THE \$ VALUE OF EDUCATION

College Education is worth about \$100,000 more than a high-school education and about \$150,000 more than a grade-school education, reports Rudolph Neuberger, president of The Tuition Plan. According to *Education Summary* the average elementary graduate earns \$116,000 in his working life; the high-school graduate, \$165,000; and the college graduate, \$268,000.

A High School Faculty Looks at Secondary Education

SAMUEL POLATNICK

EVEN before the advent of Sputnik, many professionally minded educators were taking a serious look at our educational program. As we recognize, evaluation and modification are necessary adjuncts of vital and flexible schooling. At the Martin Van Buren High School in Queens Village, New York, our principal, Mr. Paul Denn, sometime early in 1957, asked the writer to work out with the faculty a comprehensive look at secondary education.

By fortunate coincidence, the High School Principals Association of New York City announced its plan to hold a similar conference on November 16, 1957, and it was decided to use a number of problems raised by that group as a basis for discussion here. Seven major problem areas were defined, and all members of the faculty were polled as to particular field of interest and invited to attend the Principals' Conference for preliminary reflection. The seven problems included: (1) what kind of curriculum design for secondary schools; (2) the problem of college admissions; (3) racial integration; (4) matters of secondary-school reorganization; (5) the resistant student; (6) providing for special abilities; and (7) improving integration between the junior and senior high schools.

On the basis of expression of interest and special background in a problem area, the staff was divided into groups of 25-30. One teacher was designated as chairman, and two additional faculty members as panel discussants to spark and guide group discussions. The Parent Teachers Association was invited to participate and to send delegates. Since our school is also concerned with the development of student leadership, student representatives from our Problems of Democracy class and from discussion groups were also invited to participate. Recognizing and respecting the essential professional nature of this conference, the principal and the school administration so arranged the school uniform midterm examination schedule that a two-hour block of time within the school day was made available.

The conference was convened in the school auditorium where all participants were greeted, and the purposes of the meeting summarized by the principal, Mr. Denn, and the conference chairman, Mr. Polatnick.

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The plenary session then split into seven smaller groups and met in seven rooms adjacent to the auditorium. After approximately one hour of discussion, all participants reassembled in the auditorium to hear reports from panel chairmen on the highlights of the group deliberations.

Since the deliberations were down-to-earth and represented the pooled wisdom of teachers with many years of experience, they are worthy of careful consideration. Summaries were presented in writing to the school principal as a guide in the development of our own school's efforts. The thinking is presented here for whatever it may contribute to other schools equally interested in providing the best possible secondary education for our youngsters and our communities.

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The first panel headed by Donald Ryan, Chairman of English, assisted by Alfred Wheeler and Bernard Hirschhorn, teachers of social studies, dealt with matters affecting curriculum design. This group reported as follows:

1. Junior high school records of subjects passed should represent real achievement. Too often, for example, a pupil who has received credit for a whole year of algebra is found to have practically no knowledge of the subject at all. A parent pointed out that a number of junior high graduates fail in the tenth year.

2. To effect a better degree of articulation between junior and senior high schools, it was suggested that thought be given to designing the tenth year as a year rather than as two separate terms. The longer period would make it possible to bring all pupils up to the required standard without their suffering the stigma of failure. Schools outside New York City do this. In rebuttal, some discussants thought that this would mean only that a whole year was spent in a state of failure.

3. More thorough screening was also suggested as a way of fitting incoming pupils into the high-school program.

4. Early re-programing (within the first month) into parallel classes where the work is going forward at a different rate of speed might produce the more effective learning process for each pupil.

5. To offset the interest pupils now have in achieving only minimum requirements for graduation, it was thought that maximum requirements (for example, four years of science, mathematics, English, social studies, and language) should be set. Pupils who master this supercourse would receive the school's highest recommendation for college, thus making the course something to be desired rather than endured. Some participants pointed out, however, that individuals differ and that expert guidance would be necessary to take care of individual needs and tendencies. The advanced Placement Program was cited as another device for improving the education of secondary-school pupils.

6. As ever, it was pointed out that much more money is required to support more intensive courses than is now being expended. The teacher needs more pay and should be accorded more recognition. Parents pointed out that they were most active here at Van Buren in seeking to improve conditions affecting both the pupils and the teachers.

COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

The second panel was chaired by Mrs. Ruth Feiring, assisted by Mrs. Ann Stanko and Henry Reuper, all of whom work with problems of college admissions and scholarships. This group concerned itself with problems of college admission. After hearing a summary by Mr. Reuper on the high-school principals' deliberations, the participants agreed on the great need to inform students about college entrance requirements very early in their high-school careers. In a consideration of cram courses, it was pointed out that the colleges, the College Entrance Examination Board, and the Board of Education are opposed to courses which encourage students to memorize long lists of words and their meanings and to learn by rote the answers to questions that might be asked on various tests. On the other hand, any procedure which improves the speed and comprehension of reading, or any assistance which increases the accuracy and understanding of basic mathematics may be of lasting benefit. Basically, the best college for a student is one suited to his needs, operating on the level of his ability, and one in which he can be happy. The group offered the following practical suggestions:

1. Copies of mimeographed material distributed to students with reference to college should be given to grade advisers to aid them in their counseling.
2. Home-room teachers should receive notices dealing with college admissions or related topics in advance of their distribution to students. This would enable teachers to acquaint themselves with the contents so they could advise students.
3. A section of the library should be set aside for college catalogues, pamphlets, career briefs, *etc.* Students of all grades would benefit from the opportunity to read these publications.
4. Home-room teachers (on a voluntary basis) permit students to display catalogues, pamphlets, and books dealing with college. It is suggested that students write for these books. It was also suggested that students in the home room be allowed to read such publications during long home-room or guidance periods.

RACIAL INTEGRATION

The third panel, on integration, was headed by Ira Lauscher, attendance coordinator and social studies teacher, assisted by Miss Ruth Breitenbach, Chairman of the Music Department and Neal Hemachandra of the Music Department. The discussants considered the implications of integration for Martin Van Buren High School, and for the city of New York as a whole. During the discussion of Van Buren's problems, the following points were made:

1. From the point of view of participation in extracurricular activities, (clubs, chorus, orchestra, *etc.*) no problem exists.
2. It was noted, however, that Negro students seat themselves together at lunchroom tables. It was felt that this was a result of friendships cultivated outside of school, neighborhood segregation, and travel to school from the same areas, and that no official mention or action be taken to correct it.

3. It was noted that the Board of Education is making a conscious effort to break down segregation by permitting graduates of a junior high school outside the school zone to attend Van Buren High School. This policy was approved.

4. Some panel members felt there was too much discussion in the press and elsewhere about racial segregation in New York City. Others insisted that racial segregation does exist *de facto*, and must be recognized.

In the general discussion on integration, a number of views were expressed on a variety of sub-topics.

1. A member of the panel criticized the methods employed by the Board of Education in its attempts to integrate our schools. He insisted that school zones must hereafter be constantly revised as neighborhoods change. He felt that extra travel was not desirable for young pupils or for schools where sessions start very early or end very late. He advised that forced rotation of teachers with respect to school assignment is an educationally unsound practice.

2. A member of the group expressed the opinion that only with a general raising of the economic level of the minority groups would there be a whole-hearted acceptance of integration, and that all else would be patch work and relatively ineffective.

3. Another participant voiced the thought that continued pressure for integration would become unnecessary as soon as housing would become available to all groups in all areas.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL REORGANIZATION

Chaired by Edward Everard, Chairman of Health Education, assisted by Thomas Fitzpatrick, Administrative Assistant, and Mrs. Eunice Bischof, testing counselor and social studies teacher, the fourth panel considered the questions related to reorganizing the secondary-school structure. The group considered three major problems as indicated below:

1. With regard to whether it is advisable to keep a separate academic and vocational high-school structure, the group thought in the affirmative, with several qualifications. They suggested the importance of careful guidance at the junior high-school level of who goes where. They proposed a terminal point of education at the end of junior high school or at sixteen years of age for those students who cannot really profit from further education or from a normal high-school environment. The underlying thought here was that this type of student is equally incapable in either academic or vocational high school. The record of achievement, character, and attitude should be the basis for termination or continuation of education.

2. On the question of the need for specialized high schools such as special schools for science, the group tended to oppose such organization, though some felt that this would be the most efficient way of meeting the national shortage of scientists.

3. On the problem as to what secondary-school organization can best serve the individual and society, the consensus was in favor of the present structure, but with greatly expanded space, facilities, and qualified personnel. The

feeling here was that published figures on pupil-teacher ratio, achievement, guidance services, *etc.*, were not in agreement with the facts of life as seen from the actual teaching level.

THE RESISTANT STUDENT

Martin Kaye, Dean of Boys, Jack Abramowitz, and Isidore Olicker, teachers of special classes and of social studies, led the discussion on the resistant student. There were three phases of the problem that this panel considered:

1. Who is the resistant student? The group identified him as the individual who is uninterested, or uncooperative, or nonconforming, or rebellious, or hostile. Such students become the cutters, the truants, the insolent, the disrespectful, *etc.*

2. The problem of why such pupils become insolent stimulated the lengthiest part of the discussion. Mr. Olicker, a member of the panel, emphasized the sociological aspects, referring to the contrast between the middle-class culture, the norm in our schools; and the lower-class culture, the norm in the home and environment from which most of the resistant boys and girls come. Other members of the group offered a variety of reasons such as physical (impaired vision, hearing, *etc.*), emotional, intellectual (wrong classes, wrong schools, wrong teachers, *etc.*), and social (problems at home, trouble with peers, *etc.*).

3. On the question of treatment, Dr. Abramowitz, a member of the panel, stressed the key significance of remedial reading instruction. Other proposals were to adapt curriculum materials to needs and capacities, provide better guidance facilities, make psychiatric assistance available when needed, make some provision for some kind of success in the daily experience of these youngsters, provide teachers who understand and are sympathetic to such children, allow for adequate physical activities to help "release energy," and to provide for continued faculty reflection on such problems.

THE GIFTED STUDENT

In considering what the schools should do for the gifted student, a panel consisting of Morris Bramson, Chairman of Mathematics, and Mrs. Dorothy Basson, a teacher of English, and Donald Adolph, a teacher of Health Education, led the discussion. The teachers examining this problem reached the following conclusions:

1. There is a need for improved identification of gifted students. High marks should not be the only criterion. Consideration should be given to all available data such as I.Q., Iowa Test results, achievement test results, teacher observations, *etc.*

2. Since special methodology is required for gifted pupils, ability grouping is favored. This may be accomplished through special, separate schools, through an honor school within a high school, or through honor classes.

3. It was felt that the bright student is often sacrificed for the benefit of the average or slower student, particularly where economy is involved. Honor classes are invariably among the largest in class size. Smaller honor classes are recommended if we are to give bright pupils more individual attention.

4. Honor classes should be assigned to teachers best qualified to instruct gifted students. These teachers should be scholars in their fields, capable of inspiring and stimulating their students, well grounded in the psychology of gifted youngsters, and equipped with the special methodology called for.

5. As long as a shortage of science and mathematics teachers exists, those licensed in these subjects should be reserved for bright pupils; *i.e.*, honor classes should receive first preference in the assignment of such teachers. Bright students should be given every opportunity for advanced study in these areas with competent personnel.

6. Bright pupils should receive special guidance. This guidance should come from the home-room teacher, subject teachers, grade advisers, department chairmen, and a special guidance counselor assigned to gifted children.

7. The group felt that, in addition to all the *discussion* generated about education as a result of the current Russian scientific advances, there is a need for the *means* to execute ideas. Bright children are suffering from lack of adequately trained teachers, oversized classes, inadequate space and facilities, *etc.* If plans for gifted students are to be carried out successfully, more funds must be made available.

One member of this discussion group, Harold Brown, felt sufficiently concerned to file a supplementary statement as follows:

1. Anything that we suggest is bound to cost money, and the state must come to the aid of the city.

2. Teachers of honor classes should have no more pupils than the Board of Education's reported average of thirty-one or thirty-two, and should be unassigned to the period before class to prepare adequately.

3. Since there is a scarcity of mathematics and science teachers, they should not be "burned up" teaching pupils beyond algebra and biology, who are not serious minded. Such youngsters should be weeded out of advanced classes and given other subjects to meet graduation requirements. "I am told there are unnumerable teachers of great ability buried in vocational high schools teaching general mathematics and elementary science. What a waste of money and brains in a time like this!"

ARTICULATION BETWEEN JUNIOR TO SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The seventh group of teachers met on the problem of how to resolve differences between the junior and senior high schools. The discussion was conducted under the chairmanship of David Wolff, chairman of the program committee, assisted by Miss Martha Glenz, administrative assistant, and Albert Rosenthal, a member of the Health Education Department. These teachers submitted the following proposals:

1. To save approximately 1,000 hours of clerical work, a cumulative permanent record should be designed which would cover the students' work through the junior and senior high school.

2. Inter-visitation should take place so that the senior high-school personnel would become aware of the methods of teaching and courses of study prevailing in the junior high school and *visa versa*.

3. Inter-departmental conferences should be held between similar departments of the two school levels.

4. Articulation conferences between principals, program personnel, guidance staffs, and other groups affecting articulation should be regularly established.

5. Minimum standards of achievement should be expected of graduating junior high-school students. No junior high-school pupil should be sent on to the high school if he is retarded more than two years in reading and arithmetic unless he has reached the age of sixteen.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

What does this whole conference add up to? While it is true that some of the groups did not quite confine themselves to one problem area so that some recommendations overlap and others may be contradictory, yet certain important conclusions emerge. Teachers, parents, and students can and do think seriously about educational problems. While some recommendations may have an impracticality or repeat what some administrators already know, other suggestions have an intensity and practicality which reflect experience and thought "on the firing line."

Modern education requires the cooperative efforts of all citizens, young and old. It particularly needs the best thinking of the professionally trained teacher. Recognizing his potential contribution by providing professional time for his deliberations and by carefully evaluating and applying his suggestions is a *sine qua non* for the educational leader and administrator. We are fortunate that this is the case at Martin Van Buren High School. It is our hope that the discussions here reported not only will prove valuable in themselves, but that they also will stimulate additional thought by other faculties, that they will help establish a tradition of professional meetings with ample time as an integral part of the school program, and that they will help build that framework of school-community sharing of wisdom and financial support that will build the schools and society we all desire for our children.

HOW YOU CAN PICK POTENTIAL SCIENTISTS AT GRADES 4 to 9

A simple 30-minute test can aid a teacher to point a finger at the boys and girls in his classes who are most likely to be outstanding science students. This new testing device—a pencil and paper test—is intended to aid in the great task of teachers today—that of selecting the students who are really interested in science fields.

With the aid of the support of the National Science Foundation made available to Science Service, Dr. Harold A. Edgerton has devised two related tests, called Science Background 1A, and Science Background 2A. SB-1A is a checklist of "things done in science," SB-2A is a simple science vocabulary test. They have been tried out in actual classrooms.

You are invited to try this double-barrelled technique in your classroom. A package for testing 25 students is available at \$4.75 per set. Each set contains 25 copies of test 1A and 25 copies of test 2A, together with teacher manuals, report sheets, and scoring key. They are prepared and distributed by Science Service, 1719 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Instruments Of and For Efficient Administration

DEAN VAN LANDINGHAM

THE ability of a principal to organize the routine items of administration, delegate them to responsible people, is a criteria of his professional maturity. Relieved of these routine matters, he can then exert more of his energies to the most important phase of his job, the improvement of curriculum and instruction.

Unfortunately for the beginning and lesser experienced principals, there is very little readily available material for his use. There are excellent books on principals and philosophy, but little on the everyday activities, as they vary too widely to be put in any one publication. Consequently, he has to learn on the job and too often the hard way. Thus, allow me to pass on some techniques and instruments which I and my fellow principals found to be of immense help to eliminate those little things which cause the major share of headaches.

A. *Administrative Policy Handbook*

This is a compilation of board and administrative discussions and policies covering those activities which are not regular instructional practices, such as:

1. Waiver of credits for certain individuals
2. Use of Military General Classification Test scores
3. Married students
4. Tuition students
5. Probate court—friend of court relationships
6. Class rings—class pictures, who, when
7. Commercialization—how to resist it. Keep students from being exploited and exploiting public
8. Legal aspects of Principalship—this varies from state to state. Thus you should be familiar with the laws effecting such things as:
 - a. Liability for injury to students
 - b. Publishment of students, corporal, keeping after school, made to do extra work, etc.
 - c. Suspensions and expulsions of students
 - d. Fire laws and regulations
 - e. Contracts for teachers
 - f. Contracts for school equipment
 - g. Responsibility for internal funds
 - h. Other things pertinent to your system.

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B. *The Students Handbook*

This is a handbook for all students and should contain in detail information on practices and procedures on the following:

1. School party rules, regulations, times, *etc.*
2. Dress, acceptable at school, trips, parties, *etc.*
3. Assembly rules and regulations
4. Clubs, student council meetings, *etc.*
5. Attendance, absence, practices
6. Marking procedures, a philosophy, grades, cards, *etc.*
7. Bell, schedules
8. School bus regulations
9. Athletics and eligibility, how it is checked
10. Graduation requirements
11. Student tickets to games, *etc.*
12. Class and club funds
13. Use of library
14. Fire drills and disaster drill procedures
15. A calendar of activities
16. School song and traditional yells
17. Driving, parking, *etc.*
18. Making announcements, when, what, how
19. Lost-and-found, where, when
20. Any and all other matters that are or can become a regular part of student life.

C. *Student Officers Handbook*

This should contain the details of the duties of class and club officer-ship and student council membership, such as:

1. Procedure to have class, club, and committee meetings
2. Rules and regulations governing student parties and activities
3. Copies of forms used for activities
4. Handling of money, deposits with internal accountant, *etc.*
5. Some parliamentary procedure information on conducting meetings
6. Making agendas for meetings
7. Other things pertinent to your system.

D. *Teachers Handbook*

This should contain details of procedure and policies affecting the faculty, such as:

1. Attendance-taking procedures, forms, *etc.*
2. Report cards, practices, philosophy
3. Field trips, permits, *etc.*
4. Extracurricular responsibilities, class sponsorship, party chaperones
5. Athletic eligibility
6. Graduation requirements
7. Pre-enrollment instructions
8. Final enrollment instructions
9. Fall enrollment instructions
10. Locker assignment instructions
11. Discipline—regarding local and transported students

12. Use of library and resource material
13. Internal accounting responsibilities
14. Fire drill and tornado disaster procedures
15. Repair, maintenance, procedures
16. How to order and receive supplies, *etc.*
17. Any other item peculiar to your system.

E. *Guidance Handbook for Faculty and Lay Persons*

This should contain detailed information about the guidance program, such as:

1. Testing, what, where, why
2. Interpretation of tests
3. Home-room program
4. Guidance techniques
5. Information forms on grades, interviews, confidential records, *etc.*
6. Orientation of new students
7. Other items peculiar to your system.

F. *Secretaries Handbook*

This should outline and prescribe those functions specifically the job of the secretary, such as:

1. Internal accounting
2. Transfer and acceptance of records
3. Child accounting and reporting
4. Use of student assistants
5. Substitute teachers list.

G. *Substitute Teacher Flier*

This is a page of things which the substitute teachers may expect as:

- (1) fire or disaster drills, (2) discipline measures, (3) attendance taking, (4) students out of class, and (5) other items peculiar to your system.

OTHER INSTRUMENTS

In addition to these seven brochures, the following items are vitally important and should be well planned and recorded.

a. *Discipline record*—Keep a record referring to discipline on 3 x 5 cards. This will enable you to be more consistent in handling these problems. A stock letter to parents is an excellent aid.

b. *Faculty committees assignments*—This is a record of objectives and practices of committees as well as member list.

c. *Year's activities*—This is a schedule of all activities such as vacations, athletic contests, plays, debates, parties, *etc.* and should be given to the faculty prior to the beginning of the school term.

d. *Pre-school bulletin*—This is a letter which alerts teachers to the opening of school. General first-day procedure, and all information, forms, *etc.* which will enable the teacher to start the first day smoothly.

e. *Birthday acknowledgement*—A card on a teacher's birthday does wonders for morale.

f. *Welcoming letter to new parents*—Express sincere welcome. Invite them into school, PTA, etc.

g. *Daily announcements*—Whether announced or written, they should be written on a paper form and mimeographed for all faculty to read. A specific time for announcements to be received should be set and followed.

h. *Yearly budget*—Work with experienced teachers, departments, etc. to prepare the budget which you submit to the superintendent. If you have one, it will save you hours of time getting authorization for routine purchases and expenses.

IN SUMMARY

The sooner the principal can routinize the operational procedures, the sooner he can become a principal rather than an office boy. In addition, every procedure should be simplified and stated clearly so that teachers are not burdened with paper work. Thus both principal and teacher will be free of trivials and have more energy for the improvement of the instructional program.

MEETING COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENT IN OREGON

This year's Oregon high-school graduates who cannot meet new minimum requirements for entrance will have an opportunity to seek admission through a summer course. The Oregon system of higher education recently set up a standard of admission to its institutions which requires all state high-school graduates to have a C average in their high-school work or to have passed the college board examination. Under the new program at the University, if a student does not qualify under the conditions stated, he can do so by attending a summer session and making a C average in 9 hours of work and passing a special non-credit course in college orientation.

The plan found favor with the Salem, Oregon, *Statesman* which editorialized: "It sounds like a good plan. There is many a youth who fails to find his niche in high school, or who has not learned to study, or who has not matured sufficiently to recognize the importance of his classes, who later on may awaken suddenly to the requirements of world around him. An interim of military service after high school has led at times to a new recognition of the needs for an education. So has a year or two on a job. If persons maturing late really want to improve themselves and are willing to spend eight weeks determining whether they are college material, we think they should have the chance."—*Education U.S.A.*, May 1958.

The Formation of a Teacher's Handbook

DELBERT L. BAKER

THE formation of a handbook no longer needs to be an insurmountable obstacle as it has been considered to be in the past by many administrators. The author, realizing the need for such a book from his past teaching experiences, feels that the following guide may be beneficial to those administrators who desire to compile a handbook as well as assisting others who may desire to revise outdated handbooks.

DEFINITION

Before going into the mechanics of the preparation of a handbook, one should have a good, workable definition in mind. The one which the author feels best covers the topic is found in the *Encyclopedia of Modern Education* which states in part: "A handbook is a compact compilation of important facts, principles, theories, and data in each of the various phases of education . . . to stimulate teachers and others interested in the profession to further study in the field of education . . . consisting of a list of directions, suggestions, statements of policy, and rules of the school system. A guide, not a textbook." Using this definition as a basis on which to work, it is then necessary to determine the best methods to be followed in preparing such a book.

It is advisable to discuss in departmental and general faculty meetings, the need and practical purposes that a handbook is to serve. Upon deciding to continue the handbook project, it is strongly suggested that the committee be selected in a democratic manner. In far too many schools, the administrator either prepares the handbook himself or, autocratically, selects members of the faculty to prepare the handbook without taking into consideration that some of those chosen may not realize the immediate need or may be engaged in other professional activities which would limit their time.

PURPOSES

After the need has been recognized and the committee has been selected democratically, the first items which the committee must decide will be the specific purposes to be served and the materials to be included. To assist this committee, the following purposes may be used as a guide, bearing in mind that to be considered a worth-while piece of material to be used by the teachers within a school or system, the handbook should; (1) serve as an easy reference and time saver, (2) eliminate many notices and bulletins, (3) relieve teachers of the embarrassment and time used

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in asking many questions concerning matters of varied details that arise in the smooth functioning of a school, (4) outline the school regulations, duties, and provide guidance for teachers, especially those new to a school, (5) be a uniform reference on school procedures to secure more uniform results in clerical and administrative duties, (6) give knowledge of the philosophy and policies of the school, (7) simplify and clarify aspects of the clerical duties of teachers, (8) serve as a guide for administrative faculty meetings, and (9) save much of the time which is spent in writing periodic directions and bulletins.

Having established the purposes of the handbook, the committee could well collect all written rules and regulations and all bulletins dealing with the school organization and problems, to determine that information which teachers feel they need and want to know about, and to relate these materials to the purposes set forth.

The handbook must be complete, it must be well-organized so the desired information may be found easily and quickly. The physical properties should contribute to its effective use, and the material should be clearly and simply written, with specific suggestions or samples to clarify the situation treated.

MAKE-UP

Of major importance to the administrator, teachers, and other staff members, is the actual make-up of the handbook. The following principles are recommended: (1) short sentences in simple English should be used to avoid the necessity of having to explain what has been written; (2) specific dates should be eliminated to avoid the annual revision of many pages; (3) directions should be presented in a logical sequence—in the order in which they will be performed; (4) it should be revised annually, making space provisions for revisions at the initial compilation, and giving space for suggestions to make the book more useable.

MATERIALS TO BE INCLUDED

The handbook should include all written policies and also those which have become a part of the school through usage, but which have never been placed on paper. The latter will probably be the most difficult to acquire, but, if the faculty or administration has been fairly stable, these policies will come to light in the due course of time. Other items, not all of which will be included in every handbook for obvious reasons, but which the author found included most frequently in the handbooks surveyed and which school administrators felt were most important, are listed below:

1. Admission of new students
2. Assemblies
3. Attendance
4. Audio-visual equipment and its usage
5. Bell schedule
6. Code of ethics for the staff
7. Procedures to be followed when contagious diseases are discovered

8. Procedures for handling discipline
9. Faculty meetings
10. Field trips
11. Fire drills
12. Lost and found articles
13. Lunch periods and cafeteria regulations
14. Description of the marking system
15. Playground schedule and supervision regulations
16. Procedures for home-room teachers
17. Procedures in case of illness or accident of teachers or pupils
18. Promotion policies of the school
19. Rules on pupil detention
20. Explanation of the report cards
21. School calendar
22. Regulations concerning school programs and parties
23. Sending pupils on errands
24. Student fees
25. Student council—its philosophy and purposes
26. Other student regulations
27. Regulations concerning the welfare of the teacher
28. Explanation of the testing program and guidance services offered.

This listing should serve only as a starting point for the committee. Individual schools would delete some items and add others which are more pertinent to their own school situations. Wherever possible, it is desirable to include samples of forms used in the school with information included in the blank spaces to give the teachers an example to follow when they are called upon to complete similar forms in the course of the school year. This particular section of the handbook will, as was stated earlier, eliminate many questions to the administrator or to his clerical staff.

FORMAT

As the committee progresses in its task of selecting the materials to be included, the question arises concerning the most economical means of publication. Should the handbook be mimeographed, multilithed, or printed? Of those surveyed, the most common form in which the handbook appeared was a mimeographed, loose-leaf notebook. An offset or multilith publication is more pleasing in appearance than the mimeographed one, but the expense of this type of publication may cause an undue financial burden upon some schools which are striving to provide the necessary instructional materials for the classroom teacher. Therefore, it is recommended that the handbook be a mimeographed, loose-leaf form for easier revision and substitution. This would suggest one article on a page in order to provide for quick revision. However, if several short articles must be placed on one page, the articles should be grouped together which will not need revision, but which will remain constant over a long period of time. It should be apparent by now that the initial cost of printing the handbook would be expensive and the cost of making revisions would delay keeping the book up to date.

FINANCING

The financing of the mimeographed handbook would not require special funds from the board of education. The necessary stencils, paper, and ink could be procured through the individual school office which requisitions supplies yearly or more often from a central location. A special requisition might be necessary to secure hard-back bindings which the board of education should furnish upon request from school funds.

If a more elaborate style of handbook is desired than the mimeographed book, the funds for this printed handbook should be provided by the board of education from the public funds rather than the individual school funds provided through the Parent Teacher Association or other school-related organizations or activities. Most educators recommend the use of public funds from the school board for all activities of this type. However the funds are secured, the primary purpose is publish the handbook so that it may be used now!

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The Problem of High School and College Athletics

JOHN E. CORBALLY

AT NO time, perhaps, in the history of education has so much attention been given to the problem of athletics in both our secondary schools and colleges. Where radio broadcasts brought athletic events into the home and made many citizens of a community or region more aware of the extent to which such programs have grown, television has brought the viewer in much closer contact with these activities. Now thousands are actually spectators at both high-school and college contests. No doubt this experience has increased interest and, in a few instances, raised doubts in the minds of many who have had their first contact with this phase of education.

Professional baseball and professional football have gained such stature in recent years that a new field of employment is opened to many young men. To keep supplying these teams with new material, owners and managers look to new sources of supplies in our colleges, and, in the case of baseball, even in our high schools. So acute has the problem become that stringent regulations have been enacted to prevent big league scouts contacting high-school players of promise before they have completed their education. Professional football and basketball employers are prohibited from contacting college athletes until their college class has been graduated.

Despite the precautions taken to protect a high-school or college student's eligibility and amateur standing, many abuses still persist which result in many a young high-school student being pressured into enrolling in a college or university not because he can get the best type of education suited to his educational or vocational objectives, but because he is wanted on account of his athletic prowess. Even some high-school coaches feel that it is their prerogative to determine the college in which and the terms under which their star athletes shall be enrolled. Many coaches, on the other hand, are highly professional in giving advice to high-school seniors, pointing out the importance of selecting a college in which the student will get the educational program he wants, where the faculty is well regarded professionally in the field in which the student is interested, and the like.

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High-school athletic programs are assuming major league proportions in some communities. This has led to an increased emphasis on junior high-school programs in many school districts. League schedules, top grade equipment, a coaching staff coordinated with the high-school staff, and so on, have added a financial burden to some junior high schools that shift the emphasis from sports for sports' sake to a winning team that will pay expenses. A healthy junior high-school athletic program has its place in a well-rounded educational program, but it is doubtful if it should be modeled after a collegiate competitive program.

If high-school football has to carry the entire athletic program, then a winning team must be produced so the income will be forthcoming. This is bound to lead to abuses which are not in keeping with a sound philosophy of high-school athletics. The influence of townspeople in the selection and retention of coaches is strong in many places. An excellent classroom teacher who is also a coach may have to depend upon his ability to turn out a winning team in order to retain his position. Much more important in the long run are his influence upon the young people in his classes and what these students are able to do scholastically when they go on to higher educational institutions.

The high-school athlete should be protected against well-meaning alumni who exert undue influence or pressure in trying to get a student to enroll in their alma mater. Promises of employment that cannot be fulfilled, the offering of scholarships on other than academic ability, and other lures not in keeping with conference regulations cannot help but lead to difficulties. Even some parents have reached the bargaining stage in which the question is not "Where can my boy get the best educational opportunity?" but "Where can he make the best deal?" A case in point is the story publicized recently in a national magazine about a young man who spent one year in one university and then transferred to another school because his athletic prowess apparently was not recognized sufficiently, and an alleged bargain not kept.

Although fewer evils may be present in such collegiate sports areas as track, tennis, golf, swimming, and rowing, the competition for athletes still persists. Since these sports events add little financially to the athletic budget, their value lies in the prestige that comes to the school with division or regional champions. Coaches in the above named sports may have fewer inducements to offer high-school seniors than have the football, basketball, or baseball coach whose sports are revenue producers and in many schools carry the cost of the entire sports program; yet, students participating in the first-named group of activities can become professional, industrial, and political leaders if given an equal opportunity with athletes in other areas to obtain a college education.

De-emphasis on high-school and college athletics will not solve the problem. There are so many values inherent in a healthy sports program that it must be continued. High-school athletic association regulations

and collegiate conference rules by themselves will not provide the answer. Policing of a conference in some few cases becomes a game where great effort is expended on the part of certain individuals who are not connected officially with a member institution to "beat the rules."

When alumni, the administration, faculty, and coaches work together with member institutions to establish and abide by a sensible set of working regulations, many of the past abuses may be eliminated. When pressure is taken off of winning at any cost and the real values of participation are recognized, coaches can do the total job they have been selected to do. True, all of us are interested in a winning team; but, if, in the winning, boys are deprived of the fun they get out of participation, if it becomes another routine job to be performed, then much is lost. Very few high-school or college activities offer such fine opportunities for developing friendships, for learning the value of cooperation and team play, for developing potential leaders, and for developing loyalty than the athletic program. The job now is to keep it in proper perspective with the total educational program of the high school or college. Only then can it justify the time, effort, and money spent on it.

RESEARCH AND THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

In recent years classroom teachers have found increasing difficulty in keeping abreast of the constantly advancing frontiers of educational research. There is a continuous demand for brief and popularly written expositions on the findings of modern research studies. To meet this need, two units of the National Education Association—the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association—in 1953 initiated the publication of the series of pamphlets, *WHAT RESEARCH SAYS TO THE TEACHER*.

Written by AERA members of experience and competence, these booklets focus on a broad range of topics and instructional techniques in a number of fields. At the present time there are 14 pamphlets in the series, and new titles are being added at the rate of two to four a year. Included in this group are the following 9; *Personality Adjustment of Individual Children* by Ralph H. Ojemann; *The Learning Process* by William C. Trow; *Evaluating and Reporting Pupil Progress* by John W. M. Rothney; *Guided Study and Homework* by Ruth Strang; *Class Organization for Instruction* by J. Wayne Wrightstone; *Audio-Visual Instruction* by Paul R. Wendt; *Teaching High-School Mathematics* by Howard F. Fehr; *Teaching High-School Science* by J. Darrell Barnard; and *Reading in the High School* by Leo C. Fay. These pamphlets are available from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

What's Happening in Illinois Junior High School Science Programs?

M. DALE BAUGHMAN

JUNIOR high schools in Illinois offer a variety of science programs. Some have little or no science while others present somewhat of a comprehensive program of studies. According to a report of a 1957 Allerton House Conference, *The Teaching of Science in Illinois*, a two-year program of science is usually offered where seventh and eighth grades are organized on a departmental basis and science is usually taught as a separate subject. This report indicated that the science curriculum appears either as incidental experiences, correlation or integration of experiences with other subjects, or specific activities which are planned and carried out as separate units.

A reprint of an article, "High School Science Teaching," in *The Science Teacher*, April 1957, made this statement: "No one really knows the full extent of the interest of youth in various aspects of science. Unfortunately for many youth—they lack guidance—they lack laboratories and workshops—they lack encouragement from parents and other adults to take advantage of available opportunities—their schools have not offered them science clubs—school programs have not been organized to give special opportunities to those with unusual inclinations toward science."

Nothing more than some gentle nudging was needed to cause the writer to undertake an investigation into the current and proposed programs of science learning experiences in Illinois junior high schools. The needed impetus came from two or three junior high-school principals who felt a real need to know what junior high-school science programs were like and what changes were being contemplated. In December 1957, questionnaires were mailed to 230 schools listed in the 1956-57 Illinois School Directory as junior high schools. One hundred thirty-four, or 58 per cent, of the total sample returned useable replies.

STATUS OF PRESENT OFFERINGS

Data were sought which would reveal the present status of kinds of science offerings with relation to periods per week, number of semesters,

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and required or elective courses. Information concerning participation in science clubs and fairs is also included here. Of the total respondents (134), 77 were from schools representing grades seven and eight, 34 were from schools with grades seven, eight, and nine, and five came from schools having grades six, seven, and eight. Less common types of organization included here are the 6-6 plan, from which there are two representatives; the 1-8 plan, represented by one school; and a 2-8 system, also represented by one school. Since some respondents did not indicate type of organization, these figures do not total 134. Table 1 describes the current science offerings in Grade Seven.

TABLE 1. REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE SCIENCE OFFERINGS, WITH PERIODS PER WEEK AND NUMBER OF SEMESTERS, IN GRADE SEVEN.

1957-1958									
Subject	R*	E**	Periods Per Week					1S†	2S††
			1	2	3	4	5		
General Science.....	65	0	1	5	12	6	37	13	38
Health.....	64	0	6	15	8	4	19	8	41
Health and General Science Combined....	34	0	0	0	5	3	20	5	25
*Required	**Elective	†One semester	††Two semesters						

Data not shown in Table 1 are as follows: four schools offer a health class two and one-half periods per week; one school offers health one-half period per week; four schools offer health and general science combined two and one-half periods per week; three schools offer health and physical education combined; one school offers accident prevention one period per week for one semester, and one school offers biological science and mathematics in combination, each being taught two and one-half periods per week for two semesters. Two schools reported no health or science in grade seven. (Because of several omissions in certain questionnaire responses, the above subtotals as well as those in Tables 2 and 3 will not equal the totals given.)

Comments on Table 1. Either alone or in combination, general science is required in approximately 75 per cent of the schools reporting. It is most commonly offered *five* periods per week for *two* semesters. There is a wide variation among the 64 schools offering health in the number of periods per week. The range is from *one* period per week to *five* periods per week. Many schools offer health *either two or five* times per week, usually for *two* semesters.

Some comparisons will be made throughout this report between this investigation, the Illinois study, and a nation-wide study of 370 junior

high schools by Gruhn and Douglas. The percentage of schools offering general science as required or elective in the Illinois Study is 74, and for the Gruhn-Douglass Study was 71. Table 2 reveals the nature of science offerings in grade eight as reported by the respondents.

TABLE 2.—REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE SCIENCE OFFERINGS, WITH PERIODS PER WEEK AND NUMBER OF SEMESTERS, IN GRADE EIGHT.

1957-1958									
Subject	R*	E**	Periods Per Week					1S†	2S††
			1	2	3	4	5		
General Science	61	4	0	3	9	5	41	14	37
Health	67	0	5	14	9	5	22	9	49
Health and General Science	28	0	2	2	5	2	14	4	19
*Required	**Elective	†One semester	††Two semesters						

Data not shown in Table 2 are as follows: one school offers general science two and one-half periods per week; one school offers general science for a 13 week period; one school reported that health is given three or four times per week; six schools reported health as being offered two and one-half times per week; one school offers "science projects" two periods per week as an elective for highly motivated pupils. One school offers physical science two and one-half periods per week for two semesters. Three schools offer health with physical education. One school gives biology four periods per week for 39 weeks. One school has an elective advanced science course which runs for two semesters, five periods per week. It is integrated with health.

Comments on Table 2. Four schools offer general science as an elective in grade eight. In all the others general science is required. On a required or elective basis, either alone or in combination, general science is offered in 70 per cent of the schools studied. The same statement holds for health. Typically, general science is offered five periods per week for two semesters. However, about 20 per cent of the schools offer it only three periods per week for only one semester. It is quite common to offer health either two or five times per week for two semesters in grade eight. When general science and health are offered in combination, it is usually for five periods per week on a two-semester basis. The percentage of schools offering general science as required or elective in the Illinois Study is 69, and for the Gruhn-Douglass Study was 68. Table 3 gives the data regarding science offerings in grade nine.

TABLE 3.—REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE SCIENCE OFFERINGS, WITH PERIODS PER WEEK AND NUMBER OF SEMESTERS, IN GRADE NINE.

Subject	R*	E**	Periods Per Week					1S†	2S††
			1	2	3	4	5		
General Science.....	14	16	0	0	0	0	28	1	23
Biology.....	0	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Health.....	8	0	1	3	1	0	1	4	3
*Required	**Elective		†One semester		††Two semesters				

Data not shown in Table 3 are as follows: one school reported that general science is offered one or two semesters; one school indicated that health is given two and one-half periods per week. Two schools reported advanced classes for superior pupils. One school reported an offering of general science combined with health, and one school combines general science and biology at the ninth-grade level.

Comments on Table 3. Thirty of the 34 responding schools which include grade nine offer some science in grade nine. There is almost an even division in the number requiring the subject and the number offering it as an elective. All schools offer general science five periods per week, and all but one offer it over a spread of two semesters. Biology as a separate subject is not offered in grade nine. Eight schools offer health along with general science. The percentage of schools offering general science as required or elective in the Illinois Study is 90, and in the Gruhn-Douglass Study is 92. In the above studies at each grade level, it is obvious that science offerings in Illinois junior high schools nearly coincide with the per cent of schools, nationally, offering this area of learning.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. It is probably safe to say that, in the per cent of schools offering general science, Illinois junior high schools are on a par with those in other states.

2. About one school in four is thinking seriously about giving more emphasis to junior high-school science in 1958-59.

3. Three out of every four Illinois junior high schools offer general science either separately or in combination with health in grades seven and eight.

4. Of Illinois junior high schools offering general science, the majority offer it separately five periods per week for two semesters.

5. Either separately or in combination with general science or physical education, health is offered in approximately 75 per cent of Illinois junior high schools.

6. In nearly all Illinois junior high schools which include grade nine, ninth-grade general science is either required or elected. There is no pattern with regard to the required and elective situation. Nearly always science is offered five periods per week for two semesters. Biology has not been included in ninth-grade science.

7. Too many schools sponsor neither science clubs nor science fairs.

8. The lecture-demonstration method is the most commonly used science teaching procedure in Illinois junior high schools.

THE SCIENCE NEWSREEL

The Science Newsreel is a motion picture film program for American schools. It will appear in ten regular releases, each twenty minutes in length, throughout the school year. The purpose of the *Science Newsreel* is to bring news and information about science—in vivid, understandable form—to students in the schools. It is designed to stir imagination, to broaden understanding and to stimulate *thinking*—both among those students who may go on into careers in science and technology and, equally important, those who will go into other fields.

The point of view of *The Science Newsreel* is that science is not a caste, or a class, or world that exists apart from the rest of our world. It will help impart to all young Americans something of the excitement, wonder, and truth of science. Beyond that, it will help show that science is a disciplined way of looking at life, a habit of trying to make things make sense, that has its uses in every kind of thought or action: In history, religion, economics, national and international policy, and everyday human communication—as well as in chemistry or physics. It is a direct link between the people who make science news—in the laboratory and in the field—and the *students in the schools*. It will cast light on the relationships between the various sciences, and between science, art, morals, and everyday life. It will emphasize the unity of all knowledge. It will show, issue by issue, that science is neither cold nor remote, nor beyond the grasp of the majority of the people. It will show science as a Great Adventure, filled with beauty, delight, and fun.

The Science Newsreel is designed for showing in the school, by projection in classroom or auditorium or via TV. Study guides will be supplied with each issue. Discussion may be planned to suit requirements from 5th through 12th grades.

The subscriber would pay a regular franchise fee, based on population, on a yearly contract. In addition, the subscriber would supply a minimum number of prints of *The Science Newsreel* to the school system(s), that number to be fixed in consultation with school authorities. Sufficient prints will be made available to allow wide viewing throughout the schools, on a feasible and convenient schedule. For information write to United States Productions, 5 East 57th Street, New York 22, New York.

Longer Periods - No Study Halls

EDWARD R. CUONY

HAVE you ever walked into a Junior High School study hall? If you have, you quite likely found a room where the teacher was doing nothing but routine "police" work. The study halls in many of the junior high schools that I have had an opportunity to observe are a period of waste for the student and for the teacher. The students are usually loafing, looking out of the window, poking their neighbors, sailing paper airplanes across the room, and a similar series of behaviorisms which we ordinarily do not tolerate in a school. This is probably quite natural, since students of the junior high school will exhibit purposeless behavior unless they have some well-defined purpose. Many early adolescents have not developed independent study habits; consequently, there is no purpose in study halls.

In the reorganization of our own junior high school, the faculty investigated many different programs. They devoted a considerable amount of time to the matter of eliminating study halls. The faculty felt that study hall duty was the most onerous task in the daily schedule for any teacher, especially if the study halls were large. Since we felt that the study halls were a waste of time for teacher and student, we set out to study the matter of a better utilization of student and teacher time. Up to this time, our school had been operating on the conventional forty-minute period for each subject and each study hall. The faculty decided to lengthen the class periods by ten minutes, making a fifty-minute period and thus eliminating the necessity for study halls. The fifty-minute period was set up to include a portion of time for teaching and the remainder for supervised study. This, we decided, was a more efficient use of time. The class period, however, was not structured so that each teacher had to devote twenty or twenty-five minutes to supervised study. The faculty felt there should be a considerable amount of flexibility in implementing the objectives of the longer period.

The considered opinion of our faculty indicated that junior high-school students did not have well-developed study habits. Consequently, when these students went into study halls they did not know how to study or how to use efficiently the free time thus provided. The faculty felt that one of their major jobs was to teach students how to study. We all felt that this could be done more efficiently in a small classroom situation with the teacher, who gave the assignment, present. In this manner we were assured that students were getting help from the teacher who gave

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the assignment. It also assured us that students were getting a start on their homework. The faculty members assigned to study halls sometimes had difficulty in helping a student in some subject area with which the teacher was not completely familiar or, perhaps, unfamiliar with the method that had been taught. The subject matter teacher was also never quite sure if he did not have the students in his own study hall that students would get started on an assignment. Anyone who has been in junior high-school work knows that one of the most common retorts of students to the query by a teacher, "Don't you have anything to do?" is "No, I've done all my work." There is no way of checking this and many times the student feels quite sincerely that he has done his work. Study hall teachers found it difficult to decide whether students had completed all the work required by and one teacher. By providing twenty-five or twenty minutes of supervised study in each class period, the teacher could have an opportunity to teach students how to study in his particular subject area, in the method best suited for the type of work being done. We all recognized that there are different ways of studying the social studies, mathematics, science, and the other areas.

The supervised study period also brought the subject matter teacher closer to the student in terms of realizing the problems of homework. During this supervised study period, the teacher had an opportunity to walk around the room and help individual students with any problems which were not made clear during the lesson, or during the teaching portion of the period. If the assignment was not clear, it quickly became evident. Students did not have the excuse of not knowing the assignment or how to do it. This supervised study portion of each class also assured that the student, rather than his parents, did the homework.

The longer period divided into a teaching portion and supervised study portion also made sense psychologically. The attention span of the average junior high-school student ranges between twenty and thirty minutes. By teaching for approximately thirty minutes, the student's attention span was utilized to the fullest and the teacher's time was not being wasted when the attention span of students had been passed. This was a more efficient use of student time and certainly a more efficient use of teacher time. This whole matter of a class period with supervised study appended, seemed to be more efficient. It provided a greater amount of teacher-pupil time per subject. Let us take for example, a subject meeting five times per week, forty minutes per day for forty weeks of the year: this resulted in approximately 133 hours of pupil-teacher time per year. By increasing the period by ten minutes, the total time that a teacher and pupil could stay together in purposeful interaction was increased to about 167 hours. This represents an increase of thirty-four hours over a period of one year. This was done without lengthening the school day and without increasing the length of the school year.

The longer class period with the appended supervised study also provided more time on field trips, experiments in science classes, and project

work in some of the other areas. Courses such as industrial arts, home-making, art, and exploratory typing gained a great deal from this lengthened period since the extra ten minutes very often helped complete a project which was ordinarily not possible with the forty-minute period.

In terms of administrative scheduling, the longer class period offers no particular barrier; in fact, it makes scheduling somewhat easier. This is especially true with schools running a closed lunch period, or a lunch schedule where all students must eat in school. This provides 25-minute lunch periods and splitting class periods does not become such an onus to the teacher and to the administrator as under the old system. The longer period with supervised study makes possible a break in the middle of a period. The first part of the period can be devoted to instruction, students then may go to lunch, returning after eating for the supervised study portion of the period. It also provides a longer lunch period, which in many schools is a necessity. With students going to a cafeteria, standing in line, eating their lunch and returning their trays, twenty-five minutes is a much more meaningful time period than 18-20 minutes. The extra five minutes per lunch period makes considerable difference.

In terms of room utilization it certainly is easier to schedule without study halls, since the largest classroom in many schools must be reserved for a study hall. For the gym teacher, this also has some obvious advantages since the 50-minute period provides just a little bit more time to take showers and don clothing before returning to class. With a 40-minute period, our gym teachers often complained that no sooner did the youngsters get on the floor after dressing for gym than they had to return to the locker room to undress, shower, and get ready for classes. The longer class period makes more sense here.

Teachers also are given more free time in this way, since the usual class load is five periods per day and one free period. The free period becomes ten minutes longer than previously. The longer time provided in this manner for planning and conferences is a boon to the teacher.

We have found that our students are doing a much better job with homework since we have adopted this longer class period with the supervised study period appended. Teachers are more realistic in making their assignments and very often they are more explicit in their explanations since it will then save them time during the supervised portion of the period. It should be made very clear that the supervised portion of each class period is not intended as a time in which to complete all homework given, but rather to get started on it. In a recent survey we found that many of our students were devoting approximately fifteen and twenty minutes per subject on homework outside of school. The quality of the homework assignments handed in, after we had appended the supervised study portion to each period, was much higher than before. At a recent faculty meeting, the matter was under discussion again and the faculty unanimously decided to retain the present organizational pattern of 50-minute periods and the elimination of study halls.

To Have - Or Not To Have Student Body Funds?

C. E. WALLACE

SOME leading educators have taken the position that education should be truly "free"; therefore, student body funds should be eliminated. With the development of the comprehensive high school and the wide variety of activities it encompasses, a many-headed monster has been created that displays a voracious appetite for money. Pragmatic administrators have devised a wide variety of techniques for raising the necessary funds to meet this need.

The Executive Council of the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators recently sponsored a study conducted by the author to make an appraisal of the use of student body funds in senior high schools on a nation-wide basis with special emphasis upon California. Responses were obtained from 173 representative secondary-school administrators throughout the nation which formed the basis for the findings.

Secondary-school administrators identified at least fourteen educational objectives obtainable by students who participate in the use of student body funds. A rating scale of one to five was used in obtaining the data and the administrators indicated that the most desirable statement of purpose for having student body funds was "An acceptance by the students of a sense of responsibility for public funds." The accompanying table shows the tabulation of the response to this part of the study.

A few school districts have experimented with ways of eliminating student body funds or greatly reducing the costs to students. The published reports of these experiments generally reflected an enthusiasm for the idea, but, after a few years, student body fees were again accepted as part of the school life. Apparently the psychological effect of receiving everything "free" detracts from the intrinsic value of the activity. The secondary-school administrators who participated in this study indicated that the second most important statement of purpose for having student body funds was "experiencing the value of earning money for undertakings rather than expecting it to be furnished free to all students."

Ranked third and fourth by the secondary-school administrators who participated in the CASSA study were the following: "Recognition of the desirability of having every request approved before the obligation is

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TABLE I.—THE PURPOSES OF HAVING STUDENT BODY FUNDS, AS REPORTED BY 173 SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Rank order ^a	Item	Number of responses by rating steps ^b					Median rating	Rank order as rated by	
		1	2	3	4	5		California respondents	Out-of-state respondents
1.	An acceptance of a sense of responsibility for public funds . .	103	49	18	1	2	1.54	1	1
2.	An experience in the value of earning money for projects instead of having everything given to students "free"	88	42	27	8	2	1.76	2	3
3.	Recognition of the desirability of having every request approved before the obligation is incurred	71	57	29	8	3	1.84	4	4
4.	Recognition of the need for an adequate system of recording .	80	51	32	7	4	1.88	5	2
5.	Election of responsible representatives who will exercise good judgment in the use of student body funds	67	44	34	12	10	2.13	3	6
6.	An experience in the value of building a budget	50	63	38	13	3	2.14	6	5
7.	Recognition of the rights of all groups within the student body to share the profits from any student activity	54	42	47	14	10	2.32	7	9
8.	The value of providing for regular reports to student body on policy decisions and current status of funds	42	64	41	16	8	2.32	9	7
9.	Acceptance of limitations imposed by law, administrative policy, and agencies outside the student body	48	51	43	13	11	2.33	8	10
10.	Appreciation that student body funds can purchase equipment or provide facilities not provided by the school district	59	36	31	19	23	2.47	10	8
11.	Experience in reporting regularly to the electorate to keep students informed about the use of their money	34	50	51	18	22	2.68	11	11
12.	Recognition of the importance of protection by bonding or insurance	24	34	48	30	31	3.06	12	12
13.	Student body funds can be used to employ additional personnel not available through district funds	12	13	25	13	103	4.91	13	13

^a Rank order based on calculated median.^b Rating steps (column headings): 1—Of great value; 2—Above average in value; 3—Of average value; 4—Below average in value; and 5—Lacking in value.

incurred," and "Recognition of the need for an adequate system of record keeping." These indicated that the administrators realized that there are many valuable lessons related to the mechanics of handling public funds. The statement of purpose ranking fifth in importance was "The recognition of the need to elect responsible representatives who will exercise good judgment in the use of student body funds." This purpose provides a valuable lesson in good citizenship, since all of the students who are participating in the use of student body funds will at some time be the citizens in our community who must be responsible for electing our governing bodies.

More than half of the administrators who reported in this study recommended that the school personnel identify the educational values obtainable through the proper use and control of the student body funds, and proceed to develop a program that would make these benefits available to students. In view of these recommendations, and the statements of purpose which received the highest ratings by the administrators, it becomes important for every sponsor of student activities to examine the existing policies and procedures relating to the control of student funds and see wherein opportunities for greater educational values exist within the present program of activities.

Some authors have suggested techniques that can be employed through the student council for establishing a commission on student body finance,¹ that provides for representation from the student groups, faculty, and administration. This commission usually is designated by the student council with specific areas of responsibility defined for them.² In some schools this commission is responsible for recommending to the student council all policies related to the raising, control of, and expending of student body funds. The most important single function served by the finance commission is the preparation of the budget for the subsequent school year. These same basic principles could be applied to many clubs, classes, or athletic groups. The learning experience provided to the students who participate could be very meaningful and beneficial.

Recently, more and more pressure has been exerted on school district funds, which in many districts has resulted in suggestions that the student body funds could reasonably be used to purchase items, or provide services previously provided by the school district. This attitude is based upon the idea that generally speaking the revenues of a school district are fixed by law, or by the voters, whereas a diversity of activities may provide increased revenues for student body funds. Authors in professional publications are unanimous in expressing the belief that student body funds should *NOT* be used for the purchase of capital items such as buildings, bleachers, score boards, etc. They should be provided by school district funds. Similarly the authors in the field agree that *school district* funds should be used to underwrite the payroll necessary

¹Joseph W. Crenshaw, "Student Administration of Activity Funds," Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, 1954.

for all aspects of student body activities including professional leadership, clerical personnel, and custodial services. A large majority of the administrators who participated in the study of student body funds endorse these statements.

What types of expenditures can reasonably be made from student body funds? In the state of California, the Education Code provides that student body funds may be used for "the good of the students." This leaves a great deal of latitude of judgment for those who are administering the funds. Part of the study provided an opportunity for secondary-school administrators to recommend whether student body funds or school district funds should be used to underwrite the expenses of certain typical activities. A majority of the administrators recommended that *student body funds* should be used to: (a) pay for the decorations at the student body dances; (b) pay for the dance band of the senior prom; (c) purchase membership pins for the Spanish Club; (d) pay for printing programs for football games; (e) meet the cost of publishing the annual or yearbook; and (f) purchase certificates for scholarship society members.

Based upon the findings of this study, it is obvious that secondary-school administrators believe that there are sufficient educational benefits available to justify a program of activities which involves the raising and expending of student body funds.

INDUSTRY'S NEED AND EDUCATION

The public press has contained so much recently of the need for larger numbers of scientists and engineers in the industrial world that it needs no further emphasis here. If anything, perhaps it needs de-emphasis—not because the need will not exist, but because there is some danger that in attempting to meet the need, we may throw out of balance our educational and training programs by failure to meet the growing requirements for skills in other fields. Certainly, the need for increased production of highly trained engineers and scientists seems of no greater concern than the elevation of the basic level of understanding in such areas for all the people needed by industry.

From the broadest point of view, the industrial world today, and in the future, needs and will need, less people with limited abilities to do—whether they have only the minimum physical capacity required to dig a ditch, or the higher order of skill required to assemble a watch. Increasingly, we will need more people with ability to observe, to understand, to analyze and solve problems, and to report and make clear the results and consequences of their solutions—A Speech by David H. Dawson, Vice President and Director, E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Company, at the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in Omaha, Nebraska, May 19, 1958.

SAY

W. S. MILBURN

ONE thousand speeches made in Kentucky high schools last year by leading citizens of more than two hundred communities! Principals and superintendents, always seeking better assembly programs, have discovered "acres of diamonds" so close to school auditoriums that rich mines of inspiration and information have become activated and productive.

Under Kentucky's unique SAY program—Speaking to American Youth—prominent, successful business and professional men in each community are invited to speak to high-school students at assembly programs. Chosen in advance by a special committee, these men rate high in speaking ability, appeal to young people, and the value of their knowledge and experience. Junior and senior high schools wishing to participate in the program have two speakers scheduled for each semester—four a year. They are an attorney, a businessman, a clergyman, and a doctor.

It all started eighteen years ago when a public-spirited citizen, recalling how very much the speeches he had heard in high school and college had influenced his life, interested three Louisville men in speaking to the students in six of our high schools. He found that the principals were happy to have business and professional leaders tell what they had learned that youth should know. Students were not only impressed by the messages they heard, but also by the fact that these prominent men were willing to include such a program in their already-full schedules.

The idea has grown steadily and today, the SAY program is a definite part of our educational process. A. D. Litchfield, state secretary of the Y. M. C. A. of Kentucky, under whose sponsorship the program is carried beyond the confines of Louisville, said recently, "The Speaking to American Youth program seems to touch the very needs of young people today. It has been received by some 200 high schools in the state. This means that speeches by approximately 800 laymen, successful in living life, are given directly to approximately 60,000 teenage young people annually. It is my honest opinion that the SAY program is good seed sown in fertile soil and produces a sizable harvest."

The program is one of the finest pieces of public relations the school has ever had! After these citizens have spoken in the school, they speak in praise of the schools.

The student audience at Louisville Male High School is made up of approximately 1100 young men and women of widely diversified interests,

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intellectual abilities and social, cultural, and financial backgrounds. They are a difficult audience, showing plainly their approval or disapproval by varying degrees of enthusiasm or lethargy. And yet, last spring, they gave a standing ovation to a minister who spoke seriously for thirty minutes in a straightforward, man-to-man fashion, without using the proverbial attention-catching jokes and time-worn cliches. He paid them the unspoken compliment of speaking to them as intelligently as high-school students should be spoken to, never talking down to them nor "at" them, but reasoning with them. He had no great gift of oratory, but a happy, friendly, understanding manner which won them immediately.

When I learned that a doctor, scheduled for our next SAY program would speak on "Scars of Alcohol", I was frankly worried as to how the Male High School group would respond. For approximately two minutes they were frankly skeptical and tittered a time or two rather facetiously; but the sincerity of the speaker and his deep concern that they get his message were so evident that soon he had their undivided attention as he gave a frank account of his professional experience with the effects of alcohol on human beings. Sufficiently documented, it treated the problem as a practical health matter, not as a moral one. He gave some very solid advice on how to live an active social life without indulging in so-called social drinking. In several classes which immediately followed assembly, teachers and students had serious and frank discussions of the "scars of alcohol"; it was evident that the speech had given them "food for thought."

A businessman made a great hit when he talked to the students about the business of getting married and establishing a home. He warned them in the beginning that he would deal with an unusual phase of this problem: money (dollars), not love! The speaker himself had a keen sense of humor and understood his audience well. He had them chuckling appreciatively and laughing hilariously as he drove home truths about young couples "who get married on \$16 and go in debt for the rings." He urged them to save first and pay cash for furniture and washing machines. "If you go into the business of a home simply because you love each other and want to get married, you will NOT be going into business, but into drudgery. Starting this business one year too early can make it a source of worry for twenty years."

When he counted with them the capital necessary to start married life, they were aghast! Then, when he itemized expenses showing the smallest amount on which they could run a home per month and live, he had them doing some tall thinking. You can imagine that such a talk was the subject of classroom discussions for several days.

One of the finest things about the Speaking to American Youth program is the effect these talks have on faculty members. It sometimes happens that teachers and school personnel profit as much from these

speeches as the students do. For example, an alumnus of our school who had worked himself up to the position of an administrative officer of a Trust Company chose to speak on ways of investing money. He was a dynamic, down-to-earth young man who emphasized his topic "Greenbacks That Come Back" with force and assurance. Many on the faculty remembered him as a student, but he immediately won the respect of his entire audience with his knowledge of the subject and his ability to put his points across. He opened up a big new world of finance and created a desire and a determination in his listeners to profit by it. The effectiveness of his message was enhanced by his use of one, five, and ten dollar bills, a bank pass book, a Series E Bond, a building and loan book, an insurance policy, a stock certificate, and a deed to a home. That was a message which had teachers talking, too!

The mechanics of the SAY plan are as follows:

1. The superintendent of school, the principals, and others whom they may wish to choose to assist them meet to make a list of prospective speakers.
 - A. Select an attorney, a businessman, a clergyman, and a doctor as the speakers for each year.
 - B. Get men—
 1. Whom you are proud to put before the students.
 2. Who stand well in their business or profession.
 3. Who have a community interest.
 4. Who can make a speech to students.
 - C. Select four for this year—two for each semester. Keep a list for the future. (A speaker, if satisfactory, is usually asked to speak every third or fourth year.)
 - D. Call on prospective speakers and get them to agree to speak.
 - E. Get interesting information about the speaker for the person (usually a student) who will introduce him.
 - F. Get a list of available dates (including the hours) from each school. Let the speaker select his speaking dates from the list. Furnish a completed schedule to both the speakers and the principals. Remind the speaker a day or so in advance.
2. You are offering the speaker an opportunity and the honor of a lifetime. He has been selected to represent his business or profession before the citizens of tomorrow. The greatest speech of his life is expected.

In general, the SAY program may, among other things, help students to:

- Appreciate American government (attorney)
- Appreciate American business (businessman)
- Appreciate American religious freedom (clergyman)
- Appreciate American medical research (doctors)

This can be done best, however, by speakers who interpret these broad aims in the areas of student experiences and relate them to anticipated field of future endeavor. The program will then realize its over-all purpose, "Appreciate America"—through its stated objectives:

Let's dream of a day when every man shall seek to:

- be reconciled to the use of his own judgment (shall to his "own self be true").
- make a living and a life: have a sound philosophy, a practical program, and a pursued purpose.
- prevent preventable disease, poverty, and crime.
- do his share of the world's work—furnish his share of the world's tools.
- appreciate America—do his part in politics, keep it clean; select, elect, support, and make secure good men in public office.
- tear down that which tears men down; build up that which builds men up.
- do justly, love mercy, and walk humbly; love his neighbor as himself.
- have available for every man six rights—health education, religion, work, home, and love.
- have vision—defined by Dr. John R. Mott as "to see what others do not see, to see before they see, to see farther than they see."

The speakers of the year are given a copy of a small notebook which has on its front cover the philosophy of SAY. It is worth repeating here:

Each of us dreams a dream;

Each of us catches a vision of something great;

Each of us in his own line of work learns something worth telling to others.

Speaking to American Youth provides an opportunity

For a great soul to share with others his dream

Of what men and women can come to be and do . . .

So sharing he may cause them:

- to see a vision that he sees
- to have a purpose that he has
- and to come to have a vision
- and a purpose of their own
- More clear
- More worthy
- More steadfastly pursued.

NEW TEST AIDS SENIORS IN SELECTING MATH COURSE

In South Carolina last spring a new statewide algebra test was given to eleventh grade students. Its purpose was to help students decide which mathematics course to take in their senior year. College-bound students who show weakness in algebra will be advised to repeat it, obviating the need for South Carolina colleges to offer "remedial" courses in mathematics. Abler students will be assisted in choosing advanced courses such as college algebra or trigonometry during their final high school year.

Test results will also provide a basis for advising other students, not bound for college, about future work in mathematics. The test covered the first and second year of high-school algebra and was based on syllabi and textbooks used in South Carolina schools.—*The Educational Testing Service Developments*, March 1958.

What Do We Want for Our Children?

DAVID WAYNE SMITH

RECENTLY, while in conversation with a group of classroom teachers, a number of rather timely criticisms were directed at the American people, and their attitudes toward the education of children, to include the gifted. The general climate of this discussion seemed to indicate a pressing need for the people and the critics of education to devote much more time to an honest appraisal of the tremendous changes that have been effected in America's pattern of living. Similar innovations should also have been more consistently brought about in our schools.

A SOCIETY IN TRANSITION

Teachers, felt, for example, that the rapid transition of the American society from the quiet, peaceful rural mode of life Thomas Jefferson dreamed about, to its present dimension, had actually inspired innumerable unaccepted exigencies for the culture and for the schools. Great industrial and community revolutions of the kind experienced in the United States in recent decades do not come about peacefully and free from chaotic ramifications. These, too, have demanded universal modification of the role of the school.

DIVERSE ASPECTS OF COMMUNICATIONS

Another basic difficulty responsible in many respects for America's failure to recognize, accept, and utilize gifted persons, and the ever present reality of individual differences, is the inability of our people to free themselves from the strangle hold of *informal* education institutions. Through well developed, psychologically sound advertising campaigns, using the ever-present newspaper, radio, television, and popular magazine, these have reached into the homes, and bribed Americans into believing they are secure, and living in the richest and most satisfying society civilized man has ever known.

As a result of these unfortunate educational experiences, our people have become *complacent*, and coerced into actually developing techniques for escaping any form of challenging situation, in favor of an effortless expenditure of time and energy for finding only partial solutions to problems.

The continuous effects of the materials used by these instruments of mass communication have subdued a good deal of man's desire to create,

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to think, and to work. Not enough that our homes should look alike—our entertainment is packaged with less imagination than our commercial products. This hysteria, the desire to have everybody the "same as," has affected the way we dress, what we eat, how we meet our obligations, and what we do.

THE FAD AS A STANDARD FOR LIVING

This faddish approach to living and to the solution of life's problems has impregnated the thinking of American's with respect to the education of children, too. Harassed school administrators are today caught in the tumult; critics, on the one hand, censuring the schools for failing to recognize an impossibly select few, and the all too frequent wails of the parents on the other—"I would rather have mine *normal* than intelligent." Or, "I don't want to have a child that's too smart—he'll never get along." "He won't be able to adjust." "People won't like him."

FAILURE TO ADMIT INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

In assessing this nation's reluctance to admit individual differences, and to give children educational and motivational opportunities consistent with particular abilities and potential, it is conceivable that these *attitudes* represent inculcated values, promoted in the society for many generations, and deeply imbedded in the culture.

One possible cause for this behavior might involve the trend introduced a few decades ago by manufacturers of products useful for pearing children. These firms resorted to advertising campaigns using the pitch that certain soaps, cereals, and other food products would certainly make your youngster more like such period favorites as Shirley Temple and the Dionne Quintuplets. The "be like" concept, which seems to dominate American thought, whether one is concerned with raising children, feeding the family pet, or purchasing household goods, is an excellent example of what happens when people fall victim to such informal educational *gimmicks*. Because of pressures brought to bear on the schools by economic minded businessmen in the community, there is very little that can be done to equalize this unfortunate situation.

THE ELEMENT OF TIME

One factor is quite clear, the child spends but a small portion of each day under the tutelage of the formal education system of the community. The bulk of his time is absorbed by the peer group, the home, the church, and various other attractions. It is during the course of these associations that the child is so violently exposed to the efforts of the informal education institutions for which the school has little or no defense.

In those communities where the "be like" philosophy has inflicted great harm on the way we educate our youth, this merely reflects the failure of the people to perceive the school in a proper perspective.

Although there is little quarrel with the fact that the financial support of the education system is the burden of the populace, this does not preclude the need for professional services in determining "what shall be taught."

THE REAL CONFLICT

There is little doubt but that the real conflict in education involves the attempt on the part of the professional educator to interpret adequately the wishes of the people, and to separate this out from the *whims* of the various critics. Unfortunately, many of these so-called experts on education have been able to avail themselves of the multi-million dollar voice of the press, radio, television, and popular magazine.

Because of insurmountable hazards in the form of limitations imposed by value-conflict in the community, insufficient financial support, and the press of over-populated schools, administrators and teachers have faced tremendous obstacles in their attempts to effect educational reform. Our people have simply been guilty of doing too much ear-bending in the direction of what is glamorous, sensational, and really not consistent. It would be well for those seeking additional enlightenment on this problem to read carefully the excellent text on curriculum written in 1950 by Smith, Stanley, and Shores.¹

All too many Americans have been rather cleverly conditioned by the volumes of information written and spoken on the subject of education in recent months. Many of these represent only half-truths, and have been magnified out of proportion by our newspapers, popular magazines, and other forms of public information. These have effected altogether too many negative changes in the thinking of our people with respect to the schools.

ARE AMERICANS WELL INFORMED?

Teachers are all too familiar with the fact that Americans are not well informed. Much of the information we receive *via* popular sources is fragmentary and only tends to confuse the major issue. This analysis of our populace stems from the innumerable evidences existent in our society indicating the fact that, for the most part, we are "just not interested" beyond a few, readily available bits of information.

One might consider the voting habits of the people, and their desire to make respectable choices of public officials. It is not uncommon, for example, for less than fifteen per cent of the registered voters to turn out for a primary in a city contest. We feel very proud of our efforts when fifty per cent bother to vote in an election of national significance. These same lazy ideologies apply also in the cause of the schools, so that all too many educational institutions have been exposed to the prospect of becoming little more than a dumping ground for the unsolved and unassumed enigmas of a community.

¹Smith, B. Othanel; Stanley, William O.; and Shores, J. Harlan. *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*. New York: World Book Company, 1950. 765 pp.

THE PROBLEM OF COMMUNITY TRANSITION

There was a time, of course, when our communities were small, and the selection of worthy candidates for public office involved little more than a choice between people well known to each participant. The school, too, was quite familiar to the interests of the group, and the small enrollment of youngsters the cherished concern of the populace.

Great changes, however, have been effected in community life. In some states current need for elementary schools exceeds two per day, a figure which at first glance seems somewhat impossible. The task of living in large urban areas has demanded professionally trained, experienced persons to run our governments, and our schools. At the community level, in particular, teachers and school administrators have far outstripped elective officials in training and experience. This problem also tends to affect the schools directly, since school boards, too, are elected bodies, and frequently composed of unqualified and incapable personnel.

Where the task of management has been left to the better trained and more intelligent leadership—teachers and administrators in our schools; and managers, professional engineers, and scientists in our industries—the end result has generally been much more satisfying and productive.

WHAT IS THE SCHOOL'S TASK

Recently, some 660 youngsters were dropped from the New York City schools because of behavioral manifestations inconsistent with what the school was attempting to do. Parental resistance tended to run rampant, and the schools were verbally chastised for failing to make provisions for youngsters with behavior difficulties. This is an excellent example of the confusion that seems to surround the concept parents have of the role of the school. To say, for example, that the school shall replace the home, the church, or any other supposedly responsible community agency, is sheer folly. Here is a situation that simply demands certain basic needs of youngsters be met by other agencies in society.

Modern urban elementary schools will house five to six hundred youngsters. They frequently are required to accommodate this number in both morning and afternoon sessions. High-school enrollments tend to average in many areas 2,000 to 3,000 boys and girls. The administration of such institutions is a very complex process, and each pupil attending must be capable of a certain level of self management. Because of the great differences in youth, it should come as no surprise to the well-informed that the needs of certain pupils simply cannot be met under existing conditions.

Because of certain community pressures, it is common practice to group children according to an alphabetical system. The maturational differences, therefore, in a typical first grade might extend from 3.5 to 8.5 years. A junior high-school English teacher could very easily be attempting to work with pupils having an achievement range of from third grade through sophomore or even junior in college.

There are extensive emotional differences in our children, too. Estimates² have intimated eight to ten per cent of the total public school population as likely sooner or later to have serious problems of adjustment. The 660 boys and girls recently dismissed from the New York City system could very well fall into this group. Responsibility for the correction of such deviations in behavior rests with the parents and other agencies in the community, in all probability outside the school.

Because of overcrowding, and the reluctance of the people to make adequate provisions for the education of their children, alert teachers and administrators must of necessity begin to think seriously about specific standards governing school attendance. The task of the school board in today's complicated society is simply too great to be left to chance. Parents must become more cognizant of their responsibilities, and must be conditioned against just assuming that every youngster between the ages of six and eighteen years shall be the ward of the school system.

Solving this problem will require some pretty level-headed thinking on the part of all school people, so that this shift in emphasis as well as attitude may be effectively and democratically achieved. Never in the history of this great Nation has there been such a need for dynamic leadership from school administrators. Upon their shoulders and those of the boards of education rests the burden of remaking the philosophy and the goals of public education.

Concurring in these changes must be alert teacher groups, parent-teacher organizations, and state and national education associations. The fact that all too many of these groups have tended to concern themselves only with less constructive measures and issues must be looked upon as an excuse rather than a solution.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

A discussion such as this would not be complete without some mention of the teacher training institution. Since much of the exchange of knowledge promoting effective leadership involves the art of teaching, the role of teacher colleges and universities is an extremely important one. In grading the existing forms of education in colleges and universities in all their multiplicity, certain principles completely reverse the old standard, since the purpose of the latest teaching method implies the ultimate end to be the *individual*. This method has been somewhat disturbing to the traditional, which, proceeding from a more primitive and, therefore, lower stage of thought, has continued to cling to *authority* for justification of its existence. The existence of such dichotomous conditions in higher education has prevented these institutions from lending too much support to the efforts of the public schools.

²McCandless, Boyd R. "The Emotionally Disturbed Child," *Special Education for Exceptional Children*, Edited by Frampton, Merle E., and Gall, Elena D. Boston: Porter-Sargent Co. 1966.

Colleges and universities have also faced the prospect of becoming little more than community service stations; reduced in a sense to mere *watering troughs* for masses of students, with no restraint or selection. Increased enrollments, unwieldy classes, and over-zealous alumni groups have simply complicated the role of the college and the university in community life. An additional handicap, of course, stems from the insistence of all too many alumni groups that it is more important to meet the needs of a few well chosen, highly paid *prima donnas*, rather than the academic demands of the intellectually capable.

CONCLUSIONS

Just how long our nation can insist upon attempting to afford chaos and indecision in education would be most difficult to postulate. There is little doubt but that we have progressed a good ways along the route toward philosophical decadence with respect to the part education shall play in our search for world security. One can only hope that the tempest stirred by those gifted persons who have managed to survive the plot to equalize human endeavor may soon discover ways for reducing educational prostitution. This is a primary hope for tomorrow's youth.

AN INTERCHANGE OF STUDENTS

The United States attracted more foreign students to its schools in 1957-58 than ever before in its history, the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, New York, reports. This country continued to lead the free world in the education of foreign persons, with 43,391 students and scholars coming to study in 1801 American schools from 145 countries—some as remote as Basutoland and the Fiji Islands.

Three significant characteristics of foreign students in the U. S. are revealed in the Institute's *Open Doors*, an annual statistical report on educational exchange: (1) the typical foreign student in the United States is a Far Easterner majoring in engineering; (2) he is most likely here on his own funds, not because of a scholarship; and (3) in one out of three cases, he is interested, especially if he is an engineer, in employment after graduation with the overseas branch of a U. S. corporation. The statistical "he," it might be added, is also prone to be an actual "he," with men students still outnumbering women more than three to one. The only country to send more women than men was the Philippines.

The already large number of American students going abroad for study rose further in the period surveyed by the report. They numbered 12,845 in 52 countries with a tendency to concentrate heavily in the West. Fifty-eight per cent, a record number, went to Europe, 20 per cent studied in Latin America and 13 per cent went to Canada. (Figures for American students abroad were for the academic year 1956-57, due to the greater time required in obtaining statistics from overseas universities.)—*News Release, June 12, 1958.*

What Is a Fact?

D. B. VAN DALEN

THE scientist makes observations to get at facts. But what are facts? Facts mean different things to different people. A layman frequently speaks of wanting the facts, but he usually has a rather narrow concept of facts. He believes their meanings are self-evident and their nature is precise, permanent, final, unchanging. To the scientist, facts are not something that are self-evident, but rather something that are found through probing. He is not dogmatic about the certainty of facts; he is constantly critical of them. The scientist realizes that many facts are more elusive and less stable than the layman thinks they are. He does not expect all facts to be equally stable, precise, and accessible. He knows some facts can be expressed quantitatively, others can be expressed only in words, and some do not readily lend themselves either to mathematical or language descriptions. To the scientist, facts are any experience, change, occurrence, or event that is sufficiently stable and supported by enough evidence to be counted on in an investigation. Something cannot be called a fact unless there is adequate empirical evidence to prove that it exists. However, the empirical referent may be arrived at indirectly.

ACCESSIBILITY OF FACTS

All facts are not equally accessible to the observer. Personal facts such as dreams, memories, fears, preferences, feelings, revelations lie hidden deep within the individual. They may be very real to him and pass his personal tests of reliability, but they are not accessible for examination by others. A scientist cannot directly observe these inner, personal phenomena to see whether he draws the same conclusion about them as other observers or the individual having the experience. He must rely on the individual's description of the experience which may be inaccurate. Or he may infer that the individual's experience is like that he has had under similar circumstances which may not be true.

The following practical example illustrates the difficulties that arise when man tries to investigate personal facts. If a student takes the smallest piece of cake on the plate at tea, what motivates this act? Different observers will draw different conclusions. They may decide he is trying to be polite, he doesn't like chocolate cake, or he thinks the hostess is a poor cook. The student may report that he took the smallest piece because he is on a diet. Actually, he may be trying to conceal the

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fact that he has just eaten two candy bars and is not hungry. Personal, inner facts are one man's knowledge. Moreover, that man may not be willing or able to analyze his experience accurately. Personal facts are socially unreliable knowledge because they cannot be verified by public tests of common perception.

"Public facts"—those facts that can be observed and tested by everyone—are much more reliable than inner, personal facts. For example, if one man asserts that a particular object weighs ten pounds, any normal person can test the validity of that statement. If many men use their senses and special instruments to test the weight of the object and they all reach approximately the same conclusion, their findings can be accepted as being quite reliable. In time, public facts win common acceptance as the most trustworthy knowledge available to mankind.

The natural scientists deal primarily with "public facts," but some of the most pressing problems demanding solution in the social sciences involve personal, inner facts or a mixture of public and personal facts. Consequently, the social scientist encounters much more difficulty than the natural scientist when he tries to observe phenomena.

LEVELS OF FACTS

Facts are not all alike. For purposes of illustration the following paragraphs discuss three levels of facts that range from (1) those that man identifies through immediate sense experiences, (2) to those that man identifies by describing or interpreting his immediate experiences, (3) to those he identifies by engaging in a highly abstract reasoning process.

Facts of immediate experience are pure sensations without any names or labels. They represent raw experience because no attempt is made to identify, interpret, or assign meaning to them. These facts are known by immediate apprehension alone. They are sometimes called "pure facts" or the most "factual of facts" because they have not been changed in any way by the individual's intellectual process. When facts of immediate experience undergo intellectualization, they no longer retain their pure character. It is doubtful that people, other than babies, can have such raw experiences, for very early in life humans begin to name or assign meaning to experience.

The second level of facts, those describing immediate experience, are not just raw experience. When man describes a sensation as a sound, he engages in a low level of conceptualization. Through an intellectual process, he associates the raw sensation with his past experiences and identifies it with that class of things he calls sounds. Facts describing immediate experiences are relatively close to sensory experiences. They are not highly conceptualized. Some, however, are more conceptual than others. Facts which are primarily sensory in nature, such as sound or smell, are less conceptual than those derived from thought or reasoning experiences, such as memories or ideas.

The third level of facts are derived from a highly abstract reasoning process. These facts are very remote from sensory experiences. They cannot be observed directly by the senses. Although they are highly conceptual in nature, they are supported by enough empirical evidence to prove they exist and, therefore, are acceptable as facts. For example, through an involved reasoning process, man constructs the proposition: The world is round. Man cannot see that it is round with his naked eye, but he can provide enough evidence traceable to various forms of sensory experience to confirm this proposition. Another example of a fact derived from abstract reasoning is one that shows the relationship between two concepts. That reading ability is closely related to arithmetic ability is accepted as a fact. This relationship cannot be observed directly by an individual. It can only be experienced on the conceptual level. Ultimately, however, it can be traced to empirical referents. Most people do not realize how little of what they accept as facts is given by raw experience alone. Theorizing plays a major role in securing facts.

In summary, facts are not all alike, equally accessible, or equally easy to establish as "factual." A fact may be any event, experience, change, or occurrence. A fact, therefore, is a generalized concept and capable of more than one meaning. A fact may be looked upon as a continuum of experience, from experience that is immediate to experience that is highly conceptual.

SOME STATISTICS ON EDUCATION

1. An hour's schooling under a trained teacher in a planned program of learning costs 33 cents while the American parent pays 50 cents an hour for an untrained baby sitter, who offers limited activities and no program. (And with a baby sitter, the Committee points out, the parent provides the furniture, TV, telephone, transportation, and food.)
2. Compared with what is spent for defense, on homes, on drinking and smoking, on automobiles, on recreation, educational costs less than any of these.
3. Compared with the cost of crime (\$50 billion annually), education comes at bargain rates (\$14 billion annually).
4. Compared with the payoff in higher earnings made possible by education, the investment brings substantial returns.
5. For the same 33 cents that buys one hour of public education, the citizen would only get one fifth of a haircut or one milkshake or one gallon of gasoline,

These comparisons —plus similar ones, on taxes and other expenditures— are presented graphically in a colorful 16-page leaflet titled *Compare the Costs*. Sources and explanations of all statistics used are listed individually. Order from the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Costs: 10 copies for \$1 or 100 for \$5. *News Report*, April 28, 1958.

Preparing the English Specialist for Teaching

EDWARD R. FAGAN

GENERALIZATIONS underlying all undergraduate curricula which have as their end-product a specialist reflect at least two major influences: tradition and community expectations. In the case of tradition, the professional preparation for teachers of English is notoriously hidebound largely because the subject itself ramifies into so many sub-areas that considerable disagreement occurs among its authorities. Similarly, community expectations as to what a student of English should know at the end of a four-year high-school course often dictate the type of prescribed curricula prospective English teachers should have. These same two influences affect other areas of specialization and each year finds more literature and research being done on the types of experiences which should go into various professional education.¹

Like other professions—e.g., engineering, law, medicine—teacher training (English) has recently undergone changes in the recommended constituents for professionally prepared English teachers. While it is true that many institutions of specialized education have tended to ignore such recommendations, other institutions have attempted to introduce some changes into their undergraduate pattern of preparation. Among the many reasons for this changed approach to preparation of specialists are influences such as the spread of ideas from books like: *General Education in a Free Society*, *Higher Education for American Democracy*; the changed philosophy of the secondary school (i.e., "education for everyone²"); and the concrete statements made by industry, education, and communities as to their expectations of what knowledge and applications of it an educated person should have.

CHANGING CONCEPTS: COMMUNICATIONS FOR ENGLISH

First the term, then the concept, "Communications," has tended to replace "English" as a description of at least one type of experience necessary for the professional preparation of English teachers. The history of the substitution of one term for the other reveals the fact that

¹University of the State of New York, *Proceedings of the Eighty-Seventh Convocation*. (Albany: University of the State of New York Press, 1964). This publication is dedicated entirely to specifying experiences for various professional courses in all areas of education.

²Education Policies Commission, NEA and AASA, *Education for all American Youth*. (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944). This publication presents extended influences of the philosophy of "education for everyone."

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World War II and subsequent military actions acted as a catalyst on the acceptance of the communications concept as vital to our very existence. Certainly, McGrath, in his oblique criticism of the narrow specialization ancillary to "English" classifications, had the total pattern of professional preparation in mind when he wrote: "The capacity to use the mother tongue with clarity, simplicity, and precision should distinguish those who have had the advantage of college education, as alas, it does not today. Our inability to convey precise meanings to our fellows and to understand the meanings they attempt to convey to us is at the basis of many of our social and political problems."³

The ability to convey meanings *et al.* mentioned by McGrath is further borne out by statements of lawyers, doctors, and engineers as reflected in statements by spokesmen of each profession made at an educational convocation held in Albany, New York, April 8 and 9, 1954. A representative statement from these professions is as follows: "Most certainly in industry, particularly in our technical work, we need people who are educated, not just informed. Any attempt on the part of a secondary school, and more particularly a college or university, to give instruction in current engineering practice rather than training in the basic principles is doomed to failure from the beginning if for no other reason than that technology is changing and shifting so rapidly."⁴

From an industrial viewpoint, then, narrow specialization is not desired. Later on in his address, Linder specifically referred to "communication" as being one of the problems with which schools should be more concerned. The educators' viewpoint of communication in the modern world with its specific sub-areas and their applications to vocational training are described in detail in the Grey-Shoemaker study.⁵ Grey and Shoemaker indicate ways in which communication tends to be incorporated into curricular patterns of highly specialized education such as those found in New York State's Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences.

SUGGESTED PRINCIPLES FOR BUILDING IN UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULA FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

What has been listed up to this point directly concerns the training of the future English teacher since two seemingly opposed forces are influencing the curricula. The first of these forces is as has already been noted, community and tradition. Thus, in spite of the opposite force—modern research and recommendations for broadening backgrounds of professionals—there is still a great demand for subject-centered knowledge

³Earl J. McGrath (ed.), *Toward General Education*. (New York: MacMillan Co., 1949) p. 23.

⁴University of the State of New York, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

⁵Lennox Grey and Francis Shoemaker, "General Education in Relation to Vocational-Technical Education in the New York State Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences," (Albany: State Education Department, 1955.) (Mimeographed)

⁶National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education, The Fifty-First Yearbook, Part I* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952). The above principles apply directly to the professional training of English teachers, but are based upon implicit suggestions of Esther Lloyd-Jones, Chapter X.

in and for itself in the training of English teachers. In spite of these seemingly opposite viewpoints, it is suggested that guiding principles which seem to be a reasonable basis for curriculum construction might be these:

1. Selecting and admitting students to English teaching preparation on the basis of several standards which indicate competence and skill in the subject.
2. Providing counseling and guidance facilities staffed by competent people within the English Department who are willing and able to help each student.
3. Planning and advising extracurricular experiences which have the recommended broadening values for prospective English teachers.
4. Selecting a staff which is committed to a philosophy of allowing students to accept responsibility in many areas of their professional training.
5. Training staff already employed in the various bases for the philosophy of individuality and the techniques of its implementation.
6. Evaluating and revising curricular patterns in terms of community expectations and over-all principles.
7. Co-ordinating viewpoints on such procedural matters as concern for writing and literary skills by teachers other than the immediate English faculty.
8. Co-operating with the student personnel offices in attempting to learn how to identify and refer students in need of special services; *e.g.*, health.
9. Providing knowledge of other occupations available for English majors who seem unable to fulfill the professional aspects of prospective teachers.
10. Providing placement and vocational services based upon continuous knowledge of students' progress in all areas as reported in a cumulative folder.
11. Using students interests and desires as a basis for recommendations of communities and schools philosophies which seem best able to satisfy his individual choice.

If the above principles can be accepted as cornerstones for building a curriculum for prospective English teachers, then with very few modifications they could also be used as guiding principles for the entire area of specialized education. The benefits derived from the implementation of these principles, particularly in teacher-training programs, would more than offset the slight increase in time and money they might cost. Perhaps the greatest benefit to be derived from the implementation of these principles in the education of specialists is this: that educators will accept some responsibility for guiding and placing students who lack aptitude for their chosen speciality. Such responsibility will be vital in the current educational pattern goaded as it is by public opinion and irresponsible statements of pseudo-teachers into the mass flunking of "inadequate" students by the hysteria created by sputniks. As Emerson said so long ago in his essay, *Spiritual Values*, "... each man has within him the power to do something unique"; since it is not by sputniks alone that man lives, it seems wise to counsel non-sputnik-oriented students into other useful courses instead of relegating them to a limbo of frustration by flunking them out of college without examining the areas in which such students might make significant contributions to American education.

Desirable Technical Skills and Other Qualifications for Beginning Office Workers

LOUISE B. FIESS

THE writer of this article was interested in ascertaining the desirable technical skills and other qualifications of beginning office workers. Therefore, she decided to make a study in Portland, Oregon, (1) to know the employment procedures for beginning office workers; (2) to determine actual job requirements by oral interviews in representative business, industry, and government offices; and (3) to tabulate and record the results in a manner useful to teachers, students, and employers.

In this study, oral interviews and the survey method of applied research were used. An interview schedule was used during interviews in twenty-seven personnel offices. Each organization represented employed more than fifty office workers. Provision was made for subjective comments and opinions by those participating. Findings were presented by scores of answers from each question; by tables and percentages where possible; and by quoting typical comments, observations, and opinions of the persons interviewed. Facts presented by those participating in the study were analyzed. The following information was generally sought by the employer:

1. The skills employers most desire from beginning office workers, in order of importance, when developed to a high degree of competency, are: grammar, handwriting, spelling, vocabulary, typewriting.
2. The personal traits most desired are: accuracy, ability to follow instructions, neatness, good physical health, consideration, honesty, oral expression, punctuality, and the ability to work well with groups.
3. To verify applicants' qualifications, interviewers consider the written application; the oral interviews; personal appearance; answers from former employers, schools, and personal references; and the results of the firm's own pre-employment testing programs.
4. So much emphasis is placed on pre-employment testing and screening that few terminations result from insufficient skills or undesirable personal traits.

As a result of the study the writer drew the following conclusions and recommendations:

This summary was presented by Miss Louise B. Fiess, 4534 N.E. 32nd Avenue, Portland 11, Oregon.

Conclusions

1. Personnel directors want to co-operate with classroom teachers in making students aware of actual and desirable job qualifications.

2. Applicants should develop a high degree of efficiency in basic technical skills—spelling, grammar, handwriting, vocabulary, and type-writing—and offer that as their part of the employment bargain in exchange for pay and benefits.

3. Pre-employment testing and verification of qualifications are common. Teachers and students should be aware of this and be prepared accordingly.

4. The most common causes of job terminations among women office workers in Portland, Oregon, are marriage, pregnancy, or family obligations, rather than inadequacy in skills or personal qualifications observed after employment.

5. Young office workers should watch for opportunities to learn on the job, take courses for self-improvement and skill improvement, and show interest in the job and a genuine desire for promotion.

6. Employers do not predict job requirements to change within the next ten years as a result of office automation locally.

Recommendations

1. All students, not just those taking business education, should develop the same basic skills and desirable personal qualifications employers seek in office employees.

2. All students should have planned instruction in methods of job interviews, letters of application, completing application forms, and taking tests.

3. Guest speakers at school Career Days should advise students of beginner status even though the students seem more concerned about the distant future of vocations.

4. Teachers should know the actual job requirements and standards for beginning office workers and plan their instruction accordingly.

5. Use of creative drama in the classroom instruction could give students a realistic "feel" of applying for work; receiving criticism; conversation with fellow workers and supervisors; emergency procedures; salary budgeting; working with people of assorted ages.

Are Counselors Counseling?

ANGELO V. BOY

GUIDANCE has come to be recognized and accepted as an integral and necessary part of the school program. It constantly is proving its value and necessity as the primary aid in the adjustment of the student. Administrators are welcoming the addition of guidance personnel to their staff since they can see many useful services which the guidance staff can provide.

The counselors are considered to be the "front line" workers in any guidance program since individual counseling is the basis for the success of any guidance program. But in their enthusiasm to gain recognition and achieve acceptance, their prime function—counseling—is becoming more neglected as each month and year passes. Counselors have increased their services with each new school year and administrators have gladly welcomed these increased services since they often decrease their own administrative burdens. Counselors have become engaged in curriculum planning and evaluation, the proper placement of special students, planning teachers' programs, community research projects, extracurricular activities, audio visual aids, school assembly programs, science fairs, and other such activities. As a result of these added activities, some counselors are doing less and less counseling. In reality, a person who engages in these activities is more properly called a *guidance worker*.

Counseling is basically a person-to-person relationship with the goal of aiding the client to realize his problem and reach a self-determined solution to that problem. However, the counselor is fast becoming, in many cases, an administrative assistant, handling many of the school's varied administrative tasks and devoting a diminishing amount of time to counseling. In some school situations, the counselor functions as an assistant principal, handling cases of truancy and tardiness, as well as a clerk in the keeping of school records. A counselor who engages in these activities is more properly called an *administrative assistant*.

It appears that anything and everything which occurs under the roof of a school eventually, either directly or indirectly, becomes linked with guidance. School staff members often rationalize many tasks as being more ably and expediently handled by the counselors, not possessing a concept of the real essence of counseling. If a counselor is to function as a counselor, he must hold firm to his prime function; namely, individual counseling. If he is to engage in these other activities, which justifiably

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may come under the direction of the guidance department, let us call him by any other name, other than counselor.

Counseling is carried on by a trained person and is essentially a therapeutic situation. The client carries a problem and is in a maze regarding its solution. A prospective client, possessing an understanding of the counselor's function, makes an appointment with the counselor by his own volition, feeling that the counselor may be the person who can lead him out of his maze. If the counselor is well trained in the techniques involved in bringing inner tensions to the surface and having them released, he is on the road to being of significant assistance to the troubled client. Thus, individual counseling is the core of the guidance program and the student's adjustment through counseling is the primary end of the program.

Individual counseling must take precedence over any other functions assigned to the counselor. Any pseudo guidance which the counselor is called upon to do must become secondary in importance to counseling and must not interfere with time devoted to counseling.

Much has been written regarding the proper counselor-counsee ratio which must exist if effective counseling is to take place. A counselor who works under this ideal ratio will find that each time he takes on an added task, a task in no way related to his work with a counsee, he is destroying the ratio since the ratio depends upon devoting a certain number of hours to counseling each day. The ideal ratio may be one counselor for every three-hundred students, but of what significance is the ratio if the counselor hasn't the time to counsel because of the numerous other functions which he is performing?

The enthusiasm displayed for the counseling program by an administrator should be re-evaluated in proportion to the administrator's awareness of the true functions of counseling. A counseling program's effectiveness doesn't merely depend upon the administrator's enthusiasm since this enthusiasm may be based on an inaccurate concept of the aims and functions of counseling and may be generated by the administrator's view of counseling as an aid to the administration rather than as an aid to students.

If the counselor is to counsel, he must define his duties to those with whom he works. He must explain his function and his prime obligation to the counsees with whom he is working. He must be firm in presenting his job analysis and in pointing out that the afore-mentioned added activities interfere with the counseling program. He must constantly keep in mind his prime function, counseling; and his prime obligation, the counsee.

Basic Principles of Guidance - Gateway to Successful Teaching

HERMAN J. PETERS

RECENTLY, there appeared in this journal an excellent article¹ which pin-pointed eight basic principles of successful teaching. These statements focused on the process of teaching. Fundamental to successful teaching are the following general but basic principles of guidance.

1. *Know your pupils.* Each boy and girl is a unique individual. To know a boy or girl means more than an accretion of census data about each pupil. It means to try to understand the pupil's self-concept as he is growing toward maturity.

2. *Pupils are in the process of growing to adulthood.* The inexorable restlessness of boys and girls is a part of their searching for opportunities to express themselves in the next step in development. This is not a static one-by-one action. It is only for academic purposes that we, as educators, "hold" the pupil still to study him.

3. *Use research on pupil interests.* It is of utmost importance that the teacher have an adequate understanding of the changing pattern of pupils' interests. This can be gained from research on their interests. A discerning teacher will distinguish between expressed interests and manifest interests.

4. *Use encouragement wisely.* Basic to the usefulness of intrinsic motivation in learning is the teacher's encouragement of the pupil to use it. This assists him to value his intrinsic motivation as being worth while.

5. *Many learning experiences will be identified with the teacher.* A deeper analysis of the use of teaching aids may reveal not only that the pupil's learning becomes more meaningful, but also that he identifies the thrill of meaningful learning with a teacher who is really sparked with enthusiasm in working at this teaching-learning process. Over a period of time, the pupil will probably openly or subtly identify his excitement for learning with his teachers but rarely with the media of instruction. Therefore, identification with the teacher as a psychological process of learning is an important guidance principle.

6. *Learning approaches must be varied.* As a result of the guidance approach to teaching, the teacher, after applying principle one, may find

¹J. Russell Morris, "Basic Principles of Successful Teaching," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 41, No. 226, Feb., 1967, pp. 95-96.

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that before problem solving takes place, an exploratory and/or didactic learning approach needs to be given the pupil. In other cases, meaningful memorization may be needed. Learning approaches must be varied in terms of the pupil's readiness for the learning technique.

7. *Provide for sound pupil experimentation in learning.* Implied in this principle is the pupil's right to failure. Too often the classroom becomes a place where content error is more reprehensible than sin itself. If not excessive or fraught within a punitive climate, failure can be the anomaly for stimulus to a more penetrating problem-solving approach to learning.

8. *Develop the curriculum in terms of child development and the wisdom of the ages.* To restrict the curriculum to a "mirror of the community" is to short-change our pupils. Let the community be a gateway for making a meaningful curriculum reflect man's heritage, his present concerns, and his futuristic dreams.

If each teacher would use these general guidance principals together with scholarly content and selective teaching methodology, then we can be more certain that our boys and girls are having an excellent school experience. The American school patron must ask, "Do we have an effective use of guidance in our schools?"

NEW MACHINES EXPEDITE HANDLING PUPIL DATA

Every Evanston Township High School student will be assigned a serial number next fall to facilitate the operation of two IBM machines rented by the school. Hundreds of teachers' time will be saved when the new "electronic brains" automatically compute and record student data, previously done manually by teachers, according to Dr. Lloyd E. McCleary, administrative assistant.

The machines, by punching holes in cards in certain patterns, can accurately and rapidly record both numerical and verbal data, remember it, and print it in any way desired. For each student a deck of eight cards, containing registration and subject election facts, will be made. Any card can hold up to 800 punches. Because the machines can sort 1,000 cards a minute, in three minutes the entire school enrollment can be sorted on any one punch.

With the machines, procedures that will be automatically completed are class list information, visible files, distribution of marks, rank in class, student directory, Main Office records, students' subject elections and programs, and report card printing. Report cards will be mailed to the parents instead of distributed to students in the home rooms as has been done in the past.—*Here's Your High School*, April 1958.

Junior College, Wherefore Art Thou?

KEN AUGUST BRUNNER

A FEW years ago, when the writer of this article was getting his doctoral study under way, he discovered that although there was agreement on the general functions of the junior college, there had been no recent research concerned with the goals or purposes of the junior college—now sometimes called the community college, or the community junior college. The four functions proposed by F. W. Thomas thirty-one years ago—*popularizing*, *preparatory*, *terminal*, and *guidance*—were still held to be the special purposes of the junior college.¹ By some writers the *popularizing* function was being replaced by that of *adult education*, and the *guidance* function was not regarded as in the special province of the junior college alone, but important to all levels of education. As a result, some said the junior college approach should be “three-pronged”—*preparatory*, *terminal*, and *adult education*.² However reasoned this view is, or may have been, it is clear that research should be the keystone against which the aims or purposes of any institution should be laid. And this research must be kept current.

In 1930, Doak S. Campbell studied the catalogs of 343 junior colleges in the United States to find their stated purposes. After an analysis to determine how closely these declared goals were represented in practice, Campbell reformulated the purposes of the junior college:³

1. To integrate the training of the high school and the first two years of college
2. To localize the first two years of college so it may be available to most now deprived of it
3. To provide sub-professional training
4. To reduce the time spent in college by means of the integrated curriculum.

These recommendations were not widely accepted. Still, it is important that they brought about some careful curricular soul-searching.

¹Claude B. Boren, “Why a Junior College Movement?” *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (February 1954), 347-348.

²Phoebe Ward, “Development of the Junior College Movement,” *American Junior Colleges*, third edition, edited by Jesse F. Bogue (Washington: American Council on Education, 1952), 13-14.

³William Everett Rosentengel, *Criteria for Selecting Curricula for the Public Junior Colleges* (Columbia, Mo.: Graduate School of the University of Missouri, 1931), 10.

James A. Starrak and Raymond M. Hughes, *The Community College in the United States* (Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State College Press, 1954), 65-66.

⁴Doak S. Campbell, *A Critical Study of the Stated Purposes of the Junior College* (Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930), 82-83.

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It is not unlikely that the community college concept grew from seeds planted by Campbell. This idea—that the junior college is essentially community-oriented—is one of the significant developments of the past twenty-five years. So concluded the editor who reviewed guest contributions to the silver anniversary edition of the *Junior College Journal*.⁴ A re-evaluation was in progress. It was apparent that the time was right for a new look into the *raison d'être* of that uniquely American institution, the community junior college.

RESEARCH TO DETERMINE GOALS

From an extensive survey of the literature, the purposes of the junior college were collated, a rating scale was prepared, and a jury of forty-one nationally recognized persons, each acting independently, evaluated these goals. Included among the jurors were: (1) authorities in educational administration and finance, (2) experts in junior college education, (3) experienced heads of junior colleges, and (4) state coordinators of public junior college programs.

All except ten of the goals were rated by all of the jurors, and no aim was rated by fewer than thirty-six jurors. Various statistical techniques demonstrated that national authorities agreed on the objectives of community junior college education to the extent that the restatement of the goals which follows could be depended upon by those who are responsible for providing and supervising such institutions as part of a state's educational program. The aims or purposes of community-junior college education fell into five major groupings: those related to transfer students, to terminal students, to adult students, to all types of students, and to the community at large (or the state). The goals are listed within these five classifications according to the menu of the combined ratings.

Goals Related to Transfer Students

- **1. Prepare students for further college study
- *2. Prepare students for professional education
- *3. Localize (or decentralize) college educational opportunities
- *4. Ease the student's transition from the restrictions of high school to the freedoms of college
- 5. Continue home influence for two more years
- 6. Popularize higher education
- 7. Weed out students not capable of achieving a baccalaureate
- 8. Provide a means for removing college entrance deficiencies.

Goals Related to Terminal Students

- **9. Provide a general education for all
- **10. Provide semi-professional, sub-professional, or vocational education
- **11. Intertwine education for daily living with education for a vocation.

⁴James W. Reynolds, "The Significance of the Past Twenty-Five Years of Junior College Development," *Junior College Journal*, XXV (April 1965), 425-426.

**A goal preceded by two asterisks was rated "vital" by the jury.

*A goal preceded by one asterisk was rated "important."

Goals Related to Adult Students

- *12. Offer short courses to satisfy special interests
- *13. Provide courses at all levels for persons past the compulsory attendance age
- *14. Provide leisure-time education
- *15. Provide citizenship education, especially for the foreign born
- 16. Reduce illiteracy
- 17. Train teachers whenever other facilities are not available for this purpose.

Goals Related to All Types of Students

- **18. Provide guidance services: educational, social, and vocational
- *19. Explore the students' interests and abilities
- *20. Orient students vocationally
- *21. Provide individual attention
- *22. Provide leadership training
- *23. Provide smaller classes than four-year institutions can
- 24. Make possible the economical use of time
- 25. Put more emphasis on instruction than on research, thus provide better instruction than colleges and universities.

Goals of Concern to the Community at Large (or the State)

- **26. Meet the semi-professional, sub-professional, or vocational needs of the community
- *27. Affect the community's cultural tone
- *28. Make possible the economy of tax money
- *29. Relieve the university for more specialized training
- *30. Serve the experimental function
- 31. Integrate high school with the first two years of college
- 32. Foster the evolution of the school system.

CONCLUSION

There is increasing acceptance of the community junior college. Witness, for example, the plea of the honorable Clifford P. Case, United States Senator from New Jersey. He proposes a program of Federal assistance to encourage states to found or expand community junior college programs. Note, too, the recent statements to the press by the former Secretary of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Marion B. Folsom. At Rollins College, upon the occasion of receiving an honorary degree, he called attention to the relatively new trend toward the community junior college. More and more state legislatures are heeding these words. They are looking to the community junior college to meet the ever-rising demands for post-high school education. It is imperative, therefore, that the sponsors consider carefully what is expected of the institutions they are once again so eager to launch. Ere these vessels flounder in the sea of education, consider well the burdens they are to bear; then build them well.

College Information Programs

NORBERT K. BAUMGART

DUE to the ever-increasing number of students that are finding their way to our institutions of higher learning, college information programs are almost certain to receive more attention in the future than in the past. One method of informing high-school students about college that has gained considerable favor in recent years is a group guidance technique commonly known as "College Day" or "College Night." College day in this study refers to that day during the school term when instead of participating in routine classroom activity, secondary-school students, especially seniors, attend sessions conducted by college representatives. These sessions are designed to help students obtain information about colleges in order to assist them in choosing a school to attend.

Existing evaluations of college days have largely ignored student opinion. This study, therefore, attempts to bring student reactions to college day into sharp focus. To accomplish this, it was decided that the sample should consist of students who recently attended a college day. Accordingly, one hundred fifty students, known to have attended a college day during high school and who subsequently enrolled as freshmen at Iowa State Teachers College in the fall of 1957, were selected as the sample for the study. To obtain the data a structured interview was held with each student.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

A few of the significant findings are as follows:

1. 75.5 per cent said college day influenced them to at least a small extent in their selection of a college.
2. 93.3 per cent thought college day was a worth-while activity. (88 per cent of the respondents indicated that they gained new ideas and understandings as a result of talking with the college representatives.)
3. 56 per cent reported that no follow-up activity took place subsequent to college day.
4. 65.3 per cent thought parents should be invited to college day. (Those opposed to inviting parents thought parents would try to influence them too much in their selection of a college.)
5. 38 per cent said that the only advance preparation they received was a notification they could attend.
6. 18.7 per cent thought campus visits were more valuable than college day when asked for suggestions to improve or replace college day.

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7. 60 per cent thought students should be permitted to attend college day prior to the senior year. (47 per cent attended for the first time during their senior year.)

It may be concluded that, in general, college days are worth while and should be continued. There are, however, certain practices that should be followed if maximum benefit is to result from a college information program. The following recommendations are based upon the findings of this study and the experience of the writer as a counselor at thirty-one college days held in Iowa and neighboring states during the 1956-57 school year. The recommendations which follow are considered by the writer to be the most essential elements of good college information progress. Secondary-school officials should find these suggestions helpful when evaluating existing college days programs. Those who will establish college-day programs in the future may wish to use these ideas as a blueprint when organizing new programs. College officials charged with the responsibility of attending college days may also find these comments helpful.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. College day should be considered a part of the entire guidance program, and should definitely not be considered a substitute for it.

2. College counselors should have access to standardized-test scores, high-school grades, financial status of students, *etc.* if superior pre-college counseling is to take place.

3. Considerable student preparation should precede college day. (Reading college catalogs and discussion are good examples of preparatory activities.)

4. All college minded students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve should be permitted to attend; attendance should not be required.

5. The program should be held at night in order that interested working parents may attend. (This also eliminates those who would attend simply to get out of classes.)

6. Students should determine which colleges will be invited to attend college day; they should be able to visit with colleges of their first, second, and third choice.

7. A plan for evaluation of college day in which students, college counselors, and local teachers participate should be devised.

8. Under no circumstances should college day be considered the only time for visits of college representatives to high schools. A one-day approach to educational guidance is an unsound policy.

9. Colleges should always be represented by competent counselors; local alumni are seldom adequately prepared to render satisfactory service.

10. The group conference period should be considered the most essential aspect of the college-day program. The conference should be

approximately forty minutes in length and should be held in separate rooms if possible. Little emphasis, if any, should be placed on time-consuming, preliminary activities such as general assemblies and entertainment. If any are held, they should be in harmony with the fundamental purpose of the college day.

College representatives should bear in mind at all times the fact that pre-college counseling is serious business and that college represents the final years of formal education. This important fact can easily be forgotten. Counselors should be primarily interested in helping students with their educational problems. Sometimes counselors are guilty of becoming more interested in enlarging the enrollment of their college or university than they are in meeting the needs of the students.

Finally, it is recommended that secondary-school officials allow students to play a more active role in planning, conducting, and evaluating college-day programs. It is important to remember that college day exists primarily for the benefit of the student.

GIRLS

New York City's first "700" school for troublesome girls opened in March at the Board of Education, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn. Forty girls between the ages of 13 and 15, suspended since early February from the public school system, were enrolled in the special classes. The school, called P.S. 702, Brooklyn, is the third "700" school opened since the City undertook the policy of mass expulsion of "troublesome" students from the regular schools on February 6. Two other "700" schools, both for boys, have opened—one in Manhattan and one in Brooklyn. New York City has for some time operated girls' schools at several correctional institutions; however, this is the first of its kind conducted on a nonresidential basis. Earlier the city had tried separate classes for the unruly girls in larger schools but found that having these girls in the same building with other girls was not the best situation.

In a similar move to help offset juvenile delinquency in the schools, the Board of Education opened special classes for the city's youngest delinquents—those under nine years old—late last May. The classes, for not more than ten pupils each, were set up in each of the city's boroughs except Richmond, and will accept only those who have been suspended from schools. In announcing the program, Dr. William Jansen, superintendent of schools, said the younger offenders have severe problems. They are emotionally disturbed and their behavior is disruptive. They should be out of their homes and possibly in custodial institutions. "By setting up the special classes, which will consider the children's educational and emotional needs, the Board of Education hopes to learn something of how to help these youngsters," he added. The youngster under nine posed a problem for the Board of Education because, according to Dr. Jansen, "They were too young for the '600' schools, which accept problem pupils ten years old and up; they could not be sent to the '700' schools for older delinquents, and they have not reached the point where institutional treatment is indicated."

Teacher Training for School Camping

STANLEY SILVER

WHAT academic training and practical experiences should a teacher possess who will participate in a school camping program? This was one of the problems answered in a recent school camping research study¹ conducted at the University of Illinois. As the importance of school camping has become recognized and accepted by an ever increasing number of school systems as part of the regular school program, the need for trained leadership in outdoor education and school camping is readily apparent. The purpose of the study was to find which academic subjects would be most useful and helpful in training undergraduate students to assume a qualified leadership role in school camping in their capacity as teachers—by acquiring the necessary knowledges, skills, and understanding that are needed in an outdoor environment.

Each of the 48 states was requested to aid in the study. Of the 43 states that replied, approximately half had no school camping programs; 22 states which had school camping as part of their regular program participated in the study. Persons directly involved in these school camping programs aided in determining what specific training and practical experiences a prospective teacher should have to assume a qualified leadership role in school camping.

Other problems involved in this study were: (1) Should there be a four-year curriculum leading to a Bachelor of Science degree in school camping education? (2) Should school camping be a minor area of study rather than a major? (3) How much emphasis should be placed upon the areas of learning involved in a minor or major curriculum? (4) Which department or college should be responsible for any such training program? and (5) What recommendations should be made for a basic area of study for a major or a minor in school camping education?

The areas of learning which were evaluated were: science, social science, language arts, fine arts, education, health, physical education, recreation, camping, and activities. These ten categories covered 107 specific courses which were rated either "Essential," "Helpful," or "Not Necessary." The ratings of the 107 academic courses and activities that were in the questionnaire were compiled, tabulated and analyzed. From the analysis the courses were placed in the following categories.

¹A Study of Desirable Academic Training and Practical Experiences Recommended in Training Teachers for School Camping Programs (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Illinois, Champaign, August 1968, 78 pp.)

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Essential

General Science
Biology, General
Botany, General
Field Natural History
Conservation of Natural
Resources

Group Dynamics

Arts and Crafts
Recreational Music

Counseling and
Guidance
Psychology
adolescent
educational
child

Practice Teaching
school
school camping
Principles of Education
Teaching Methods
school camping
outdoor education
and recreation

First Aid
Nutrition
Safety

Games and Game
Leadership
Camping Administra-
tion
Camp Counseling
Nature and Outing
Activities

Water Safety

Square and Folk
Dancing

Elementary Games
Social Games and
Mixers

Native Crafts

Helpful

Chemistry
Physics
Anatomy
Animal Ecology
Astronomy
Bacteriology
Entomology
Geology
Herpetology
Meteorology
Ornithology
Physiology
Plant Ecology
Rocks and Minerals
Zoology

Agriculture
Geography
Forestry
Wildlife Management

Tests and Measurements
Finance

Adult Education
American Government
Anthropology
Economics

American History
Contemporary Civiliza-
tion

English Literature
Journalism
Public Speaking

Dramatics
Music Appreciation

Intro. to Philosophy
Social Psychology

Community Health
Family Child Care
Mental Hygiene

Philosophy of Phy. Ed.
Organ. and Admin. of
Phy. Ed. Program

Planning and Design-
ing—Recreation Areas
Principles of Recreation
Organ. and Admin. of
Community Recrea-
tion

Swimming
beginning
intermediate
advanced

Water Sports and
Pageants

Ballroom Dancing
Clog Dance
Interpretive Dance

Playground and Recrea-
tion
games and activities
Team Sports

Archery
Bait and Fly Casting
Horsemanship
Ice Skating
Riflery
Skiing
Winter Sports

Basketry
Ceramics
Leather Work
Metal Crafts

Juvenile Delinquency
Marriage and Family
Social Problems
Sociology

Recreation for Handi-
capped

Papier-mache
Woodworking

Boating
Canoeing

Not Necessary

Algebra
Statistics

Debating

Foreign Language

Trigonometry

Ancient History

Athletic Coaching

A three to one majority of the 88 participants in the study were against a four-year curriculum leading to a Bachelor of Science degree in school camping education, in spite of recognizing the need for trained teachers in school camping programs. Conversely, this same three to one majority recommended a minor in school camping education as desirable in providing prospective teachers with the necessary training for school camping programs.

Typical of some of the comments received *against* a four-year curriculum were: "... Let's get some good teachers who would like some experiences in outdoor education. ... Can be incorporated in a general education program. ... Not enough full-time positions to warrant such a curriculum. ... Techniques of good teaching do not differ between the indoors and outdoors." Some comments *favoring* a school camping minor included: "... Allow a cross section of training. ... Teacher training institutions should offer work to equip students to become teachers who will serve in school camping. ... We do not want specialists, we need people with diversified abilities and capabilities."

The study revealed that: (1) education, science, or physical education should be the major curricula offering in a school camping minor; (2) the areas of learning which should receive the most emphasis in such a minor are education, science, and camping; and (3) the college of education should be responsible for organizing, supervising, and administering a training program in school camping education, as a minor area of study.

The Inter-Departmental Plan² which the University of California, Los Angeles, uses, is another administrative method which appears to be gaining wide acceptance as an effective means of providing prospective teachers with a wide range of varied experiences in outdoor education and school camping.

Strengthening of school camping programs can be accomplished by:

1. Allowing students to gain practical experience by participating in an actual school camping program as part of their fieldwork or practice teaching.
2. Conducting in-service training programs and workshops in outdoor education for teachers in school system with school camping programs.
3. Utilizing the state departments of education and conservation in establishing and furthering school camping.

²"Teachers Preparation," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (May 1957), pp. 117-119.

4. Having education taught by more colleges and universities and emphasizing the aims and objectives of outdoor education and school camping.

5. Providing prospective teachers with teaching techniques and methods to enable them to use effectively the out-of-doors as an educational means to further regular classroom teaching.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The twenty-nine courses from the ten major areas of study which were considered *Essential* should be the basis in formulating a minor in school camping education.

2. Courses in the *Helpful* category should be considered for further study or to augment present learning and knowledge.

3. Courses which were considered *Not Necessary* should not be included in a minor in school camping education.

4. Although language arts is ranked low in comparison to the other major areas of study, the importance of language arts should not be minimized as it is considered an important phase of learning, useful in school camping.

5. Conservation is considered an important area of study which should be given more consideration in the school camping curriculum.

6. More attention should be devoted to creative activities in the fine arts, language arts, and physical activities.

7. Courses in mathematics should include simple surveying, orienteering, and map making.

8. The most helpful experiences in school camping programs are those conducted in the out-of-doors and in which the prospective student-counselor can gain practical knowledge about the out-of-doors.

9. Activity in youth organizations—participant or leader—often appears to aid in school camping by providing experiences which contribute to an understanding of youngsters and a knowledge of many facets of the out-of-doors.

10. A practical knowledge of the out-of-doors in relation to nature study, camp crafts, and camp experience is necessary for teachers in school camping programs. Interestingly, the entire area of aquatics occupies little or no part of many school camping programs. The factors which attribute to these are that many school camps do not operate during the summer, many camps are not located near an area suitable for aquatics, and aquatics is simply omitted from the program.

Teacher training institutions that may plan to offer a minor in School Camping Education should keep in mind the following recommendations.

1. Courses and activities taught in a school camping minor should indicate how they can be utilized in a school camping program.

2. Only those institutions of higher learning with proper staff, outdoor area, facilities and other resources should offer a minor in school camping education.

3. A careful selection of students should be made in order to secure the best qualified personnel.

4. A part of the practice teaching, or field work experience, should be required to be spent in an actual school camping program.

5. In formulating a minor in school camping education, it would not be possible to include all of the courses from the *Essential area*. Therefore, course from the *Essential area* should be chosen according to (1) the requirements of the college or university; (2) the requirements of the major area of study; (3) the personal interest of the student; and (4) the locale of the state in the selection of courses in science and social studies.

594 SCHOOLS QUERIED ABOUT MATH AND SCIENCE

One eighth of the approximately 55,000 students graduating from Michigan high schools completed four years of mathematics, a survey conducted by The University of Michigan Bureau of School Services has revealed. The Bureau queried principals of 594 schools concerning the teaching of mathematics and science. Data are still being studied, and a complete report will be published this fall.

Meantime, preliminary tabulations indicate that only five per cent of the prospective graduates will have credit in less than one year of mathematics and only seven per cent less than one year of science.

Thirty-eight per cent of all the pupils in these schools (a total of 341,726) were enrolled during the last semester in classes of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, or advanced mathematics. Seventeen per cent were taking shop mathematics, business arithmetic, or other applied mathematics. Forty-five per cent were taking courses in general science, biology, chemistry, and physics.

The survey also gathered information concerning the preparation of the teachers who were giving instruction in mathematics and science. Seventy-one per cent of those teaching courses in mathematics had twenty semester hours or more of college study in this subject, and 19 per cent had from 10 to 19 semester hours of college mathematics. Only one teacher out of the 1,807 who are teaching mathematics in these 594 schools was reported as having had no mathematics in college. Of the 2,473 teachers of science, 64 per cent have had twenty semester hours of college science, and 18 per cent have had less than ten semester hours of college science. These percentages are based on the total enrollment of the schools reported, and this included three-year, four-year, five-year, and six-year high schools.—*Letter to Schools from The University of Michigan*, May 1958.

Audio-Visual Aids for the Junior High School

STEPHEN RICO

THE job of the audio-visual director and his student audio-visual group is to help teachers make effective use of the many audio-visual materials that are at their disposal—motion pictures, television, radio, filmstrips, slides, exhibits, posters, and models. No classroom teacher is able to keep informed about all the new material in his area, nor has he time to locate, order, and prepare materials or to arrange for equipment and operators. Therefore an audio-visual director is needed to do the above job. He also serves as a liaison between a city or county audio-visual center and its staff. The work of the director takes time and cannot be tacked onto an already full teaching load. A full-time director should be a must for every 800 students.

Regardless of the time allowed the director, a student audio-visual club is essential. This group could be made up of boys and girls selected and trained to perform certain aspects of the school audio-visual program. Depending upon their grade level and abilities, students can:

1. Operate equipment such as projectors, tape recordings, and stage equipment
2. Perform clerical duties such as ordering and scheduling materials
3. Make simple models and exhibits for teaching purposes
4. Assist in training teachers and other students in the operation of equipment.

The use of students for these routine activities frees teachers so that they can concentrate on more effective use of audio-visual materials. Participation in the audio-visual club should provide many of the same advantages as membership in any other school club or organization. Members of a well-selected, well-supervised club get satisfaction from their participation and service. They grow in ability to take responsibility and to cooperate.

Experiences can be gained that will help them gain insight into the mechanics of machines, electricity, optics, and sound, as well as develop certain mechanical abilities. In the junior and senior high school most of the students are taken from the study hall. Tasks are assigned to members according to their age, intelligence, and mechanical ability. At least two members of each class should be trained as operators. Students often are used to train other students. The director gives final tests to ascertain the competency of the individual.

There should be some incentive or recognition for good service rendered. This might be done by granting academic credit, awarding pins, school letters, or certificates. Also visits to the projection booths in theatres, visits to stage plays, and, finally, a free meal may be used at the end of the school year as an added incentive for their help and cooperation.

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How Dentists and Schools Can Cooperate

DR. MARJORIE A. C. YOUNG

BY WAY of highlighting some thoughts on this subject I will take the phrase DENTAL HEALTH and have it serve as an acrostic device for summarizing my comments.

1. *Define program objectives and operational principles jointly.*

Someone has said that all specialists are bound to see what they see in terms of their own mobilized enthusiasms. This is equally applicable to both educators and dentists. If we are to work together for the total good of children, we must establish a system of two-way communication. Two-way communication is possible under only one set of conditions; namely, both parties must have purposes in common and recognize the need for each other. This is the essence of the co-operative relationship.

There are definite language barriers to be overcome. Educators do not comprehend dental jargon and cannot respond enthusiastically to talk of malocclusion, pulpomies, periodontal disease, *et al.* Nor can dentists be expected to respond meaningfully to such terms as core curriculum and socialized integrated activities. Objectives and goals must be clearly understood and must be acceptable to all parties concerned before a workable program can be devised.

2. *Enlist the aid of others.*

School dental programs designed to meet all the many dental health needs of pupils cannot be operated by dental personnel and educators alone. Many agencies and community resource people have valuable contributions to make in over-all program planning, in policy formulation, and in implementing objectives. Furthermore, education in any specific health area should be consistent in home, school, and community so that those responsible for the long-range dental health program must find ways of reaching the total community.

Learning is most effective when people are intimately involved in meaningful activities. Therefore, many individuals and groups should be invited to assist in the development and operation of the school dental program. Who should be involved? This depends on who is available in the community and what resources can be utilized advantageously in the program.

3. *Needs and interests should be studied and considered.*

Needs seldom exist alone but are usually clustered and form constellations. Needs must be "felt" if desirable action is to ensue. A person

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himself must see his problem for himself in his own light. It does no good to tell him he has a problem when he doesn't feel that he has one.

Dental caries happens not to be a pressing problem to many people. It seems to have low potency, urgency, interest, and priority in comparison with many other health problems. Studies on health interests of children confirm this statement, as do results obtained from studies of why communities reject fluoridation. We must, therefore, find ways of relating dental health needs to other more fundamental primary needs, such as the desire for approval, for social acceptance, *etc.* Talking about the almost universal prevalence of caries and the need for dental care will avail us little, for knowledge alone is not enough to change attitudes. People will still cling to attitudes they know are wrong if they feel these attitudes are helping them carry out some deep-seated purpose. Intellectual appeals or factual presentations are not registered unless they serve a function in our lives, unless they relate to our own personal needs.

4. *Tie local dentists' efforts in with the total school health program.*

School dental programs should be seen always in proper perspective against the backdrop of the total school health program. Dental health is directly and indirectly related to all major areas and objectives of school health: administration, instruction, environment, and services. To illustrate: Administrative policies regarding qualifications, duties, and functions of school health personnel affect all types of professional health operations, including those of dentist and dental hygienist. Instruction in dental health will not be well-planned and effective in a school with the absence of over-all interest in health instruction in general. Environmental considerations related to the school lunch program affect dental health through nutritional practices; if school policies permit indiscriminate sale of carbonated beverages, candies, and other sweets, dental health problems may be aggravated rather than alleviated.

In summary, if dentists lend their efforts toward establishing and maintaining strong school health programs in their local communities, they will have a much greater opportunity to develop well-rounded dental health programs for children of school age.

5. *Assign and assume responsibilities.*

In any program involving several disciplines, there should be a clear-cut assignment of functions and responsibilities. Does the dentist know what are his legitimate responsibilities in the school health program? What functions and responsibilities lie with the school administrator and with his designated health coordinator? If there is a dental hygienist in the school system or working with the dentist in his office, what is her role in the school health program? What responsibilities can rightfully be delegated to the nurse, to other public health specialists, or to other school personnel? These are some of the fundamental questions that must be answered if the local dental health program is to operate harmoniously and effectively.

Also, when the school runs into a problem requiring a strong stand by a dentist; as for example, when the administrator desires to remove all carbonated beverage machines from his school, does the dentist accept as one of his professional obligations the responsibility of giving the school his complete support?

6. *Local school and local level operation should be the basis of program planning.*

There are widespread differences among schools in health needs, philosophies of education, teaching methodologies, qualities of teaching personnel, community relationships, *et al.* Therefore, to meet the dental health needs of individual schools and their populations, dental health programs should be designed at the local school level. For example, in a town there may be a middle-class group of pupils most of whom receive regular dental care from a family dentist. In such a group, major educational emphasis should probably not be placed on the need for obtaining regular dental care. However, these children may be in dire need of education on nutrition. Conversely, in a low socio-economic group who lack private dental contacts, emphasis might well be placed on the need for regular dental care and on the methods of obtaining it.

7. *Help constantly in other educational efforts.*

School dental programs should be an integral part of the total educational effort. They cannot exist apart from an education system. Horace Mann has so aptly said: "If ever there was a cause, if ever there can be a cause worthy to be upheld by all of toil and sacrifice that the human hand and heart can endure, it is the cause of education." Dentists ought to be vitally interested in everything that goes on in schools if they wish to accomplish maximum dental health goals.

For example, the Arkansas legislature is considering bills regarding methods of subsidizing special education programs. Dentists often become involved in this phase of education through the need for handling children with dento-facial abnormalities and because many children with speech handicaps have related dental and oral problems coming within the purview of the dentist. Shouldn't dentists, therefore, confer with local school administrators regarding the possible effects of this proposed legislation in the over-all management of such cases? Then, too, schools cannot operate without teachers, and the quality of all special educational programs, including the dental health program, depends in major part upon the individual teacher. Shouldn't dentists, assume some definite responsibilities in the field of teacher education, both at the pre-service and in-service level? And isn't this something local dental consultants could be working on co-operatively with the colleges in their areas? Dental consultants should have "invested" rather than "vested" interests in all facets of local school programs at every level.

8. *Evaluate efforts continuously.*

If school dental programs are to be kept up to date, suitable yardsticks for measuring results must be applied frequently. Someone has said that "We must change our scales every time Nature puts into our hands a new set of weights." Much progress is being made in the technical aspects of dental treatment, preventive dentistry, public health dentistry, and health education. We who work in the schools have many pressing questions to which we need answers; *e.g.*, (1) Is it worth while to take time and funds to do routine annual dental inspections or screenings when we know before we start that more than eighty per cent of the children to be examined need some type of dental care? (2) What is the best use of a dental hygienist's time and how should she work with schools? (3) What is an effective approach to dental health education at the secondary-school level? Planned, on-going evaluative studies will help to give the information needed to keep dental health programs moving in desirable direction.

9. *Assistance and guidance should be extended by dentists to others involved in dental health programs.*

To illustrate: school administrators should have information about new types of dental health programs, about community dental problems needing his support, as well as about immediate school dental needs. Who better than the dentists can supply this type of guidance? Parents and community groups also can utilize the dentist's professional knowledge and know-how. Think of what the expectant mother needs to understand about dental care! What a fruitful field the dentist has in these in terms of long-range dental goals!! And there are other captive groups whom the dentist can be reaching, such as the Parent-Teacher Associations, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, church groups, *et al.*—not to mention the teachers themselves whom the dentist can assist in many ways; namely, (1) by arranging field trips to the dentist's office, especially for kindergarten and first-grade classes, to familiarize them with the dental office, dental routines, and the dentist himself; (2) by serving as an expert resource person especially to high-school classes, on an invitation basis, to answer pupils' questions about dental health in all its many phases, both personal and community.

10. *Liaison functions should be understood and carried out.*

I wonder how many dental health consultants really have discharged their responsibilities as liaison persons appointed by the Dental Society to cooperate with school health coordinators in establishing and maintaining complete dental health programs. Do the dentists really know who the health coordinators are in the schools they service? Do dentists meet periodically with the school health coordinator to exchange ideas and progress reports? Do they attend school functions and serve on committees when requested to do so? Do they take the initiative in

relaying information and materials on dental health to the school coordinator? Does the school coordinator invite the school to cooperate with the dentist in certain types of activities? For example, has the dentist ever thought of asking the school health coordinator and the school superintendent to attend any of his professional meetings to discuss school health policies, needs, procedures, and programs?

11. Tell others about the program.

Publicity of the right kind is essential in any effort involving large numbers of pupils in the public schools for several reasons: (1) the dentist may stimulate others to do something new or better or much needed; (2) he may obtain valuable and constructive criticism that will help him to do a better job; (3) he can handle controversial issues before they become too "hot" to deal with effectively. For example, he may be able to prevent people from falsely calling a school dental program "socialized medicine." Whom should he tell? His professional colleagues, community leaders, other professional groups, in short, everybody he can reach through as many communication channels as are available to him.

12. Hold high professional standards in contact with pupils.

The best dental care is the only kind a dentist can ethically afford to dispense to *all children*, not only to those who pay the going private rates. There ought to be minimal diagnostic and treatment standards approved by local and state dental societies, and confirmed as well by medical colleagues.

FOLLOW-UP STUDY

The Port Richmond High School, Innis Street and St. Joseph's Avenue, Staten Island 2, New York, of which James V. Tague is principal, has made a follow-up study of the class of June 1957. The purposes of this study, made by Miss Harriet Martens, placement counselor, assisted by the principal, the administrative assistant, the 1957 class adviser, and another placement counselor, was (1) to find out what each graduate was doing; (2) to assist any graduate who needed help of an educational or vocational nature which was within the power of the school to supply; and (3) to see the relationship between the type of course pursued in high school and the post-school activity of the graduate. A one-page questionnaire accompanied by a letter of explanation was sent to each June 1957 graduate. The responses to the questionnaire were then analysed in reference to the course each student had taken in high school. Of the 226 students contacted, 29.2 per cent were attending college or other type of school; 58.9 per cent have full-time jobs; 18.5 per cent of the boys were in the Armed Forces; and 4.9 per cent of all were unemployed; 2.6 per cent of the girls were married. The median salary for the boys was \$54 per week; for the girls, \$57 per week. The analysis was 26 rex-o-graphed pages in length.

The Book Column

Professional Books

BARON, DENIS, and H. W. BERNARD. *Evaluation Techniques for Classroom Teachers*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 309 pp. \$5.50. This book aims to help teachers use tests and measurements appropriately and constructively. The authors treat the question of evaluation from the learning rather than the strictly "scientific" approach, offering the instructor a nontechnical orientation toward tests, their uses and limitations. Emphasis is on the hazards and limitations, as well as the valuable insights to be gained from the use of tests.

Many approaches to evaluation are described: intelligence, achievement, and diagnostic tests. In addition, the use of scales, inventories, sociograms, and teacher observation and interpretation have been made a part of the evaluation program. Suggestions for the selection of tests, for a minimum testing program, and for means of its introduction and implementation have been made direct and explicit.

The subject of testing is presented with a minimum of statistics. Although the book is much shorter than other texts on evaluation, the coverage is inclusive. The book is up to date, presenting recent data on sociometry in evaluation, on personality inventories, and on the role of evaluation in fostering continuous and appropriate learning on the part of individual pupils. A unique method of relating achievement to mental age is given. Recent advances presented are the limitations of grades and report cards as incentives to learning and the practical use of sociometry in resolving social problems that inhibit facile learning. Every chapter has a brief summary, a short annotated bibliography of selected readings, and questions for study and discussion. A glossary for the entire book is included.

BLOUGH, G. O.; JULIUS SHWARTZ; and A. J. HUGGETT. *Elementary-School Science and How To Teach It*, revised edition. New York 19: The Dryden Press, 110 West 57th St. 1958. 624 pp. \$6.75. This edition has been prepared, like the first edition, for use in courses which combine the methods of teaching science with a survey of the science subject matter. It is also written for teachers who are helping themselves "on the job." Consisting primarily of material which the teacher needs in helping children to find the answers to their questions, the subject matter is essentially nontechnical. Its organization follows the currents science curricula of most elementary schools.

There are many features of this revised edition that will be most helpful to the teacher and the supervisor. The first five chapters establish a group of objectives and principles which are not "visionary" but are capable of achievement in virtually any school situation. The chapters dealing with the different areas in science make repeated reference to these principles and objectives and show specifically how they can be implemented. Each chapter which deals with subject matter is labeled "A" and is followed by a B chapter which shows how the content of the A chapter can be taught in the elementary-school classroom. The organization of the A chapters has been carefully integrated with the B chapters. Numerous cross references—notably, the marginal page numbers—

help to make this correlation explicit. All activities have been planned so as to require only home-made, school-made, easily improvised, readily borrowed, or inexpensive equipment and apparatus. The text is illustrated with line drawings so that the student may become convinced of the simplicity of the experiments and even the totally inexperienced teacher may proceed with confidence. The photographs, in addition to illustrating the details of scientific experiments, will, it is hoped, serve further to convince the student that science activities are being pursued successfully, profitably, and happily every day in every conceivable type of school. Many new activities suitable for young children have been added to the B chapters. This edition contains two new features, "Resources To Investigate" and "Discovering for Yourself." These are designed to assist teachers of education in colleges and universities as well as elementary-school teachers who wish, on their own, to improve their understanding of science by actually observing, participating, going to see, or investigating. The activities (all of which have been tested in several school situations) are so numerous and detailed that the in-service teacher should find the book useful as a permanent guide and reference work. In order to overcome the student's possible hesitancy about working with unfamiliar apparatus and materials, the authors have stressed throughout the text the simplicity and safety of all the experiments they describe. Field trips, activities, and the use of audio-visual aids and community resources are described in detail in the early chapters; in almost every one of the later chapters they are applied as integral parts of the "classroom" situation.

BRANDWEIN, P. F.; F. G. WATSON; and P. E. BLACKWOOD. *Teaching High School Science: A Book of Methods*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 383 Madison Ave. 1958. 590 pp. This book is divided into six sections—"The Special Climate of the Science Classroom" (2 chapters); "Patterns in Teaching Science" (4 chapters); "Inventions in Science Courses" (5 chapters); "Determining the Success of Science Teaching" (3 chapters); "Tools for the Science Teacher"; and "Blueprints for Community Action." Section One develops the scientist's pattern of investigation; Section Two develops the pattern of teaching science; Section Three is a study of the science teacher's scope and sequence, the nature of the courses he teaches; and ways in which he may develop courses to fit the special needs of his pupils; and Section Four deals with evaluation of pupil achievement. Section Five deals with the demonstration; chalkboard; the film, with directory of distributors; the film-strip, with directory of distributors; the library lesson; the laboratory lesson, with a note on workbooks; the field trip; the textbook; the assignment; the report; the project; science clubs and science fairs; student laboratory squads; the bulletin board and the exhibit case; science facilities, with directory of suppliers; the professional library; the expert, with a note on becoming one; the resource file: where to go for further help. Section Six is the story of the science education programs of Detroit, Indianapolis, and Oklahoma state. Also complementing the book are *Teaching High School Science: A Sourcebook for the Biological Sciences* (E. Morholt, P. F. Brandwein and A. Joseph, 1958) and *Teaching High School Science: A Sourcebook of the Physical Sciences* (by the same authors as the biology book, 1959).

BROWN, N. C., editor. *The Study of Religion in the Public Schools*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1958. 244 pp. \$2.50. This report is the outcome of the Conference on Religion and Public Education, which was sponsored by the Committee on Religion and Education of the

American Council on Education and held on March 10-12, 1957, at Arden House in Harriman, New York. It is the fourth in a series of reports, published by the American Council on Education, on the appropriate relationship of religion to public education in the United States.

Arranged in a logical sequence, the seven papers attempted on successive days to provide "The Approach," to define "A Specific Problem," and to pose "The General Problem." Thus, papers I and II set the broad limits for the discussion; pages III, IV, V, and VI focused attention on the specific problem of how and when religion should be dealt with in teaching American history at various levels; and paper VII posed the general problem of the relationship of religion to public education.

CAMPBELL, R. F.; J. E. CORBALLY; and J. A. RAMSEYER. *Introduction to Educational Administration*. Boston 8: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., College Division, 41 Mt. Vernon St. 1958. 452 pp. \$6. This book will serve as a text for students and as a source of information for many other interested individuals. It is aimed primarily at assisting in the orientation of the prospective educational administrator. The authors have tried to give such a person an overview of the field and the means to evaluate himself as a potential administrator. Possessing this information, the student or beginning administrator will be in a better position to decide whether or not educational administration is the profession for him. If he decides in the affirmative, the book can be useful in helping him to plan his preparation for the job and for his continued professional development.

A secondary purpose of this book is to give teachers an understanding of the role of administrative personnel in the schools. The book will help them, as teachers, to participate more effectively in the administrative process. For those teachers who may be interested in becoming administrators, it will suggest how to get into the field.

In addition, this book can be useful to school board members and interested lay citizens who wish to know more about educational administration. By acquainting such people with the field, with its purposes and with the problems it faces, the book will give them a better understanding of administration in their own schools and school districts. Finally the book may provide useful information for those administrators and educators who are working to improve programs for the selection and training of administrative personnel for the schools.

Continuing Liberal Education. White Plains, New York: The Fund for Adult Education, 200 Bloomingdale Rd. 1958. 96 pp. (8½" x 11"). This report by The Fund for Adult Education covers the two years July 1, 1955 to June 30, 1957. During this period the Fund received a grant of \$17,500,000 from The Ford Foundation to finance activities from January 1, 1957 to December 31, 1961. It combined its offices, which had been in Pasadena, Chicago and Manhattan, in one office in White Plains, New York, where it occupied temporary quarters and built a new building into which it was to move in the fall of 1957.

It covers educational television and radio, public schools, libraries, universities and colleges, national organizations, and developing leaders and public understanding.

COWELL, C. C., and H. M. SCHWEHN. *Modern Principles and Methods in High School Physical Education*. Boston 8: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 41 Mt. Vernon St. 1958. 339 pp. \$5.75. This book is designed for the pro-

fessional methods course in physical education. It is intended to help the student analyze the learning patterns of adolescents and select and use the various methods and techniques that will best promote all-round growth. The basic assumption is that teaching is a profession just as demanding in its knowledge of methods and techniques as engineering or medicine and of equal importance. The methods course is that phase of professional preparation that unites theory and practice—the “know why” and the “know how.”

For clarity and emphasis the book is divided into five major parts. Part I deals with the fundamental principles of and the interrelationships among the chief sources from which the high school curriculum should be drawn, namely, the social philosophy of democracy, the nature and needs of adolescence, and the nature and conditions of learning. Part II deals with the job of the teacher, the importance of his educational philosophy, and the specific problems of beginning teachers. Part III discusses modern principles, methods and techniques of teaching. Part IV deals with curriculum content and the various activity media employed by students in learning. Part V suggests means for measuring and evaluating the results of instruction and for recording student progress.

Reflective thinking on the part of the student is encouraged by the discussion questions at the end of each chapter.

DAHLKE, H. O. *Values in Culture and Classroom*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 590 pp. \$6. From a discussion of the values of the American way of life and their relation to actions as expressed in a particular institution—the school—this book proceeds to an analytical and descriptive application of the stated conceptual schema. The logic of the analysis, the integration of the material in the outlined sociological framework, and the consistent use of value principles as an analytical tool, make this book different from other books on the subject.

The book is comprehensive in its coverage of the setting for the educational process and the school, with focus both on the structure of community life and on the details of school housing and equipment; the institutional order and structure of the school; the informal organization of the school, which includes a statement of the value system involved, and children's relations with one another as well as with the school; the school in the social order, including a consideration of the school as a center of controversy in terms of pressure groups and in terms of legal or court action; what education means from the point of view of the pupil and of the teacher; and the vocation and bureaucratic setting of teaching.

From general considerations, the analysis narrows to a comparative study of four communities. A compact history of education and its contemporary status is given, and emphasis is placed on the basic value systems and social models found in the United States and in European countries with similar institutions and groups. There is a valuable treatment of the school as a vehicle of mass entertainment, ritual and ceremonies, group dynamics, discipline and control. Reference to sociometric techniques is included.

The text is implemented by an extensive use of maps, charts, diagrams, sociograms, tables, bibliographies and other illustrative materials such as: statements and observations by teachers; data from interviews with children; and materials derived from observation of many classes. The author's

parenthetical comments on this material as it is presented, make it more explicit and more useful.

DAVIS, KINGSLEY, editor. *A Crowding Hemisphere: Population Change in the Americas*. Philadelphia 4: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3937 Chestnut St. 1958 (March). 212 pp. Paper bound, \$2.; cloth bound, \$3. This issue is composed of two general articles; seven articles on Canada and the United States; four articles on Latin America; and two case studies. Titles of the articles are "Recent Population Trends in the New World: An Over-all View;" "Life in the Americas During the Next Century;" "The Reproductive Renaissance North of the Rio Grande;" "Mortality Trends and Prospects and Their Implication;" "United States and Canada: Magnets for Immigration;" "Issues and Interests in American Immigration Policy;" "Internal Migration and Economic Development in Northern America;" "Urban and Metropolitan Development in the United States and Canada;" "Young and Aged Populations;" "Human Fertility in Latin America;" "The Revolution in Death Control in Nonindustrial Countries;" "Myth and Realities of International Migration into Latin America;" and "Recent Trends in Latin American Urbanization." The two case studies are "Economic Development, Social Change, and Population Problems in Brazil" and "The Caribbean Islands."

DURKHEIM, EMILE. *Professional Ethics and Civic Morals*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press. 1958. 272 pp. \$5. The author delivered a course of lectures on Sociology at the University of Bordeaux in 1898, 1899, and 1900 and at the Sorbonne in 1904 and 1912. They were edited and published by Dr. Kubali in Constantinople; this is the first English translation. They are an account of the problems of Man and his place in society. They discuss the evolution of morals and rights (particularly the rights of property), the rights of collective consciousness, of the interaction of freedom and duty and the rights and the constraints of law, the phenomenon of War and the processes of work, the professions and commerce.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Mass Communication and Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St. 1958. 151 pp. \$1.50. Quantity discounts: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more copies, 20%. This book is intended to serve as a guide to the educator in his thinking about, and study of, the field of mass communication. On the assumption that it is still too early for a definite assessment of the total significance of communication research for education, it provides a brief summary of both insights and investigations to date. From what is known it draws inferences and makes some speculations. It also suggests some of the possible implications of communication development for education.

This is not, therefore, a handbook of communication techniques or public relations. It is little concerned with the details of practice. It is written out of the conviction, rather, that this is an appropriate time for educators to seek perspectives on one of the most important social forces of the times.

The consideration of the nature of the mass media, the methods and some of the accomplishments of communication research, and the broad social changes which have gone along with the development of mass communication make up Part One as the background of this study. Part Two deals directly with the educational implications of the revolution in communication—with the effects of communication changes upon students, teachers, and

administrators, and suggests some courses of action which these changes seem to make desirable.

FOSTER, C. W., editor. *Annual Volume of Proceedings of the Association of School Business Officials*. Evanston, Illinois: Association of School Business Officials, 1010 Church St. 1958. 416 pp. \$4.50. This volume describes in detail the 43rd Annual ASBO Convention held in New Orleans last October. It contains many items of reference information in the field of school business management. Papers presented covered such areas as accounting and finance; schoolhouse planning and construction; maintenance and operations, purchasing, insurance, personnel management, transportation, cafeteria management, student activity expenditures, etc.

FROEHLICH, C. P. *Guidance Services in Schools*, second edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. 393 pp. \$5.75. This revision of the author's popular *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools* has been enlarged to include programs and practices applicable to schools of any size. The author maintains that guidance services can be provided in all schools, and an effort is made throughout the book to teach the beginning student to judge and evaluate for himself the variety and number of tools, techniques, and methods at his disposal.

The over-all guidance program is described in terms of the services which it can render to pupils as a group and those provided for pupils individually. In addition to these direct services to students, the contribution of the guidance program to the instructional staff, the administration, the curriculum, and the research services, is stressed.

To point up current practices, new illustrative examples have been collected from schools throughout the United States. A new chapter highlighting guidance services in elementary schools has been prepared in collaboration with Frank L. Sievers, Chief, Guidance and Personnel Section, United States Office of Education. "Thinking It Through" sections have been interspersed throughout the book in an attempt to make the reader think about the content and its application in practical situations, and additional readings and questions for each chapter have been included.

GINZBERG, ELI. *Human Resources*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Ave. 1958. 184 pp. \$3.75. This book is an over-all report on one of the first investigations of its kind ever made. The idea that a nation's wealth and strength lie in its people now seems an obvious one. But while many studies have been made of natural resources, from mineral deposits to trees, the task of developing our human resources was not undertaken on a grand scale until 1950. In that year Dwight D. Eisenhower established at Columbia University the Conservation of Human Resources Project, with the author of this book as director. The initial focus of the project was to try to find out why more than one million young men had been rejected from military service during World War II because of emotional and mental defects and why another three quarters of a million had to be discharged for these very reasons before the war's end. However, the project has from the start included the study of all the major aspects of human resources.

HALPIN, ANDREW W., editor. *Administrative Theory in Education*. Chicago 37: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Ave. 1958. \$3. This stimulating and provocative publication is the first of its kind, being the result of a seminar jointly sponsored by the

University Council for Educational Administration (representing 34 Universities) and the Midwest Administration Center. Frontier thinking about administrative theory is presented by eight outstanding scholars in the field: "The Development of Theory in Educational Administration" by Andrew W. Halpin, "Modern Approaches to Theory in Administration" by James D. Thompson, "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organization" by Talcott Parsons, "A Theoretical Framework for the Study of Behavior in Organizations" by Carroll L. Shartle, "Administration as Problem-solving" by John K. Hemphik, "Administration as Decision-making" by Daniel E. Griffiths, "Administration as a Social Process" by Jacob W. Getzels, and "What Peculiarities in Educational Administration Make It a Special Case?" by Ronald F. Campbell.

Handbook of Private Schools, 39th edition. Boston: Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon St. 1958. 1248 pp. \$10. This Handbook, published for four decades, is the one authoritative reference work in the entire private school field. This edition, more completely than any of its predecessors, presents the facilities, plans and trends in private schools and the important part they are playing in formulating new scientific and liberal curricula. Articles in the Introduction by ten leaders in the field report exciting new contemporary developments. An added feature of this edition is the presentation of many foreign private school facilities.

Fewer scholarships were offered in the private schools of the country during the last school year while tuition charges advanced more than ever before, according to statistics included in this 39th edition. Though the number of scholarships decreased, their dollar value remained approximately the same, and tuition increases averaged 9.9 per cent in private boarding schools and fourteen per cent in day schools, according to those reporting on these questions, representing approximately one half of all private schools. Teachers' salaries increased 7 to 9 per cent, showing an average increase of 25 to 40 per cent over the last five years, the Handbook points out while hastening to add that still greater increases are needed, even at the risk of slowing the pace of facility enlargement. Other private school statistics included in the Handbook show a marked decrease in non-college-bound students; an increase in academic standards; over-all increase in enrollment of three to five per cent; curtailment of tutorial and make-up offerings; broader presentation of remedial reading programs; and an excess of new schools over those closing. This edition presents, by articles, maps, cross-references, and indexes, a complete survey of more than 2,500 private schools, their tuition, programs, scholarships, facilities, and administrative personnel.

HENRY, N. B., editor. *Education for the Gifted*. Chicago 37: The University of Chicago Press, 5835 Kimbark Ave. 1958. 439 pp. \$4. This is Part II of the 57th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. It deals not only with the intellectually gifted but also with those who show promise in music, the graphic arts, creative writing, dramatics, mechanical skills, and social leadership.

There are three main purposes of the yearbook. In the first place, it is intended to report the promising ideas and practices in the broad field of the education of gifted children. This will serve to supplement the book published in 1951 by the American Association for Gifted Children, which has been an instrument for stimulating people and giving them guidance as

their interest developed. A second purpose is to state the principles underlying an acceptable program of education for the gifted in a democracy. The third purpose is to point the way into the near future. For this purpose, the writers have been encouraged to state their own preferences and to urge the adoption of what they regard as the most promising procedures.

The book is divided into three sections: Social Factors (two chapters), The Gifted Person (five chapters), and Education for the Gifted (eleven chapters). The chapter titles and authors are "Characteristics and Objectives of a Program for the Gifted" by C. W. Williams, "Identification of the Gifted" by R. F. De Haan and R. C. Wilson, "Enrichment of Education for the Gifted" by A. H. Passow, "Programs in the Elementary Schools" by D. E. Norris, *etc.*, "Secondary-School Programs" by L. S. Michael, *etc.*, "College and University Programs for the Gifted" by M. S. MacLean and R. B. Carlson, "Guidance of the Gifted" by J. W. M. Rothney and N. E. Koopman, "The Preparation of Teachers for the Education of Gifted Children" by F. T. Wilson, "Community Agencies and the Gifted" by Jack Kough, "Community Factors in the Education of the Gifted" by R. J. Havighurst, and "Organizing a School Program for the Gifted" by C. W. Williams.

——— *The Integration of Educational Experiences.* Chicago 37: The University of Chicago Press, 5835 Kimbark Ave. 1958. 389 pp. \$4. This is Part III of the 57th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The purpose of this volume is to explore everything that looks promising. Objectives, broad concepts, generalizations, problems, teaching techniques, curriculum organization, extracurriculum activities, and administrative practices all need to be studied in reference to their value in planning integrative educational experiences. It is not possible now and it may never be possible to be definitive about the best way to promote integration, but it is possible to examine with some care the nature of the concept and the philosophical and psychological considerations on which the concept is based. This is done in Section I. It is also desirable to explore the possible contributions and effects of objectives, values, curriculum organization, and administration in promoting integration. This is done in Section II. There is something to be learned by looking carefully at a few of those programs that have given much attention to fostering integration. This is done in Section III. It is also possible—and inevitable—that we look critically at the composite of those and consider the effect of all implications thereof. This is done in Section IV. Before reading Section IV, however, the authors hope that the reader will have reached some tentative conclusions of his own, because they are convinced that each student and each teacher must work out his own integration. Finally, there is a selected bibliography of books, articles and dissertations on integration.

The book is divided into four sections: The Nature of Integration (three chapters); Integration in Relation to Educational Aims and Procedure (five chapters); Characteristics of Integration at Different Levels (three chapters); and Implications (one chapter). Included also are a list of selected references, an index, information about the Society, a list of members, and a list of publications of the Society.

HUMPHREY, J. H. *Elementary School Physical Education.* New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 340 pp. \$4.75. Based on the most recent research and years of experimentation in various kinds of practical

situations, this book shows in considerable detail how the teacher of physical education can work more satisfactorily with the classroom teacher, and can help the child gain a clearer insight into concepts of arithmetic, language arts, social studies and science by the way physical education activities are presented. Part One of the book covers principles and practices of all aspects of elementary school physical education, and the second part is concerned with how physical education programs can be integrated with the rest of the elementary school curriculum. Over 200 tried elementary-school physical education activities that illustrate this integration are described and sample teaching procedures are given. Designed for use by undergraduate students who will have the responsibility for providing the most desirable physical education learning experiences for children of elementary-school age, this text will be helpful as well to the experienced teacher, administrator, and supervisor who wishes to acquire a better understanding of the area of elementary school physical education.

HUNNICUTT, C. W., and W. J. IVERSON, editors. *Research in the Three R's*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd St. 1958. 464 pp. \$6. Here is a selection of 78 key research reports of this century in the subject areas. The reports have necessarily been condensed. They remain comprehensive; for each problem, its purposes and treatment are presented, and in the authors' own words. The editors have supplied connecting sentences or paragraphs where abridgement occurs, as well as introductions to sections and topics.

The volume overcomes the barriers which have heretofore stood in the way of adequate study of these research findings—the very abundance of the research, the length of the reports, and the unavailability of much of the material. It does, therefore, make the contribution of putting the student and teacher in direct contact with research that is foundational to their work.

The studies reported here have been adapted and abridged to conserve space so that the maximum number of reports could be included. Omissions consisted chiefly of secondary findings, extended discussions of related studies done by others or of the origins of the study, routine details of the experimental methods used, and plans for further research. It is hoped that readers will want to take advantage of any opportunity to read the more complete original reports to obtain additional information or to clear up unanswered questions.

In each case an effort has been made to acquaint the reader with the key purposes or problems of the study, the methods used to try to solve them, and the important findings achieved. Where the implications for school practice are not apparent from the author's report, the editors have sometimes added a note indicating some reasonable inferences. The editors, through the use of introductions and occasional connective sentences or paragraphs, have attempted an organized and integrated presentation, not solely a scissors and paste patchwork.

The studies included were chosen because they are significant. They deal with important topics, have been influential, have been carefully done. In some cases studies equally good have been omitted since they duplicate other works which have been included. The studies included here are a small sample of the vast reservoir of accumulated experimentation. Not all areas of existing research within any one of the three R's have been represented. For some areas more studies are included than for others. This relative weighting is due

to the high quality of investigation in some areas and to the degree of importance or controversy of studies in other instances.

KEARNEY, N. C. *A Teacher's Professional Guide*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 368 pp. \$5. In depicting the teacher's world through the eyes of the teacher himself, this book offers sane and workable answers to the problems most teachers worry about. For example, the author tells the ambitious young teacher how to qualify for and land a better position. He shows how to fit smoothly into a new teaching assignment. He tells how to co-operate with supervisors, principals, and officials still higher up in the educational hierarchy. One very important chapter takes up the pressing problem of salary, and indicates what pay scales teachers can justifiably demand on the strength of their qualifications and experience. Two other chapters delineate the teacher's legal weights and liabilities, and show him how to behave safely, ethically, and permanently within the law.

Many teachers will be especially interested in the section on retirement plans, social security, and other employee benefits. Here the author maps out a general program leading to solid financial security for the teacher's "golden years."

KLAUSMEIER, H. J. *Teaching in the Secondary School*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 511 pp. \$5. This book is addressed to those concerned with educating youth, especially teachers and prospective teachers. Teaching requires an integration of understandings and skills drawn from many sources. A psychologically and socially sound developmental sequence in curriculum and instruction is emerging. This book is organized according to the author's concept of this sequence but is necessarily divided into parts: (I) Bases of Creative Secondary Education (Chapters 1-5). (II) Creative Teaching-Learning Activities: Developmental Sequence (Chapters 6-9). (III) Creative Teaching-Learning Activities: More Specific Emphases (Chapters 10-12). (IV) Expanding Responsibilities and Challenges—Identifying and Providing for the Gifted, Promoting Mental Health and Self-Discipline, Guiding and Counseling, Organizing and Directing Cocurricular Activities, Reporting Pupil Progress (Chapters 13-17). Questions about teaching and learning are raised in each part; and frank, concise, but tentative answers are provided in the form of principles and related practices. These answers are proposed in the hope that they will be considered only as tentative and that teachers and others will use group discussion, experimentation, and problem solving to find solutions acceptable to themselves.

The *Instructor's Manual* contains a short introductory statement, an annotated list of sound motion pictures which may be used with various chapters, and multiple-choice test items. It gives the instructor additional help in making meaningful the learning activities of his students.

KOZMAN, H. C.; ROSALIND CASSIDY; and C. O. JACKSON. *Methods in Physical Education*, third edition. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Co., W. Washington Sq. 1958. 561 pp. This book is written as a text for young men and women who are preparing to become teachers of boys and girls in American secondary schools, using physical education as their educational medium. It is highly personalized in style, since the authors have had in mind throughout its preparation the young people who will study the book as a means of understanding increasingly more effective ways of teaching.

In this book the teacher of secondary school boys and girls is viewed as trying to educate through the medium of his particular subject field for each individual's more effective living in the American community, nation, and interdependent world. Teaching physical education is seen as more than putting boys and girls through their "daily dozen." The area of body education is so basic in the "feeling-life" of the individual and in his interrelationships with others that unless men and women teaching in this field have increasing insights, sensitivities, knowledges and skills in working with developing boys and girls, inestimable harm can result. The body is the instrument of the "self," not a discrete physical self, but of a unified mental-emotional-physical-social-moral self. By this fact, body education becomes the very core of learning to live successfully and satisfyingly.

LANE, HOWARD, and MARY BEAUCHAMP. *Human Relations in Teaching*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 353 pp. \$5.25. Section I of the book, "What Does It Mean To Be Human?" analyzes the premise that all human behavior is social in origin and purpose.

The book presents ways of working toward common purposes in the classroom and shows how to turn group energy toward positive ends.

Its second section, "What Does It Mean To Live in Mid-Twentieth Century?" deals with the pressing social illnesses of our present era—such as misunderstanding, insecurity, irresponsibility, and prejudice. This section also shows the role the school must play to help make a healthier society.

The final section, "How Do We Learn To Live Together?" tells you of the specific skills needed in order to guide the modern child's growth and development.

LANSNER, KERMIT, editor. *Our Schools, Colleges, Laboratories Are Turning Out Second-Rate Brains*. New York 22: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 575 Madison Ave. 1958. 196 pp. \$1.50. This is a factual report by top scientists, educators, journalists—and their recommendations—some of which represent the opinions of authorities in one field, giving "advice" in another field for which their background is limited.

LAYBOURN, K., and C. H. BAILEY. *Teaching Science to the Ordinary Pupil*. New York 16: Philosophical Library Inc., 15 East 40th St. 1958. 415 pp. \$10. Many of the experiments are original, or have an original twist designed to make them more suitable for the ordinary pupil. Others are well known, though not always in the form described. No attempt has been made to trace the sources of these latter but the authors wish to express their indebtedness to science teachers past and present for that inheritance of ideas and skills which is the birthright of every teacher of the subject. Throughout the book an effort has been made to show that materials and apparatus already familiar in everyday life are usually the best medium for practical work; a glance at the Appendix will indicate something of the range of common materials that may usefully be employed. It should be realized that almost every experiment is a suggestion, on which all kinds of variation and development are possible, and experienced teachers will doubtless modify and improve in the light of their own knowledge and circumstances. But it is hoped that any teacher, however inexperienced, will find something on each subject within the range of his own capability and that of his pupils. Each experiment has been tested by the authors, and teachers are urged, if any difficulty should be

encountered, to check their apparatus again against the descriptions and diagrams.

The chapter introductions are the second important feature of the book. Here are discussed aims and purposes, content and method, special techniques and the everyday problems of the teacher of science. In many cases the matters under discussion are illustrated in the chapter which they preface, so that the teacher may have before him practical exemplification of the points raised.

MARKS, J. L.; C. R. PURDY; and L. B. KINNEY. *Teaching Arithmetic for Understanding*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 443 pp. \$6. The necessity for developing ability to compute, reason, and communicate with numbers is recognized as an important objective for the schools. Demands for thoroughly trained personnel in fields of mathematics and science are at an all-time high. Common vocations requiring competence in arithmetic have arisen in increasing numbers. Furthermore, every citizen, irrespective of his job or profession, is confronted with unprecedented demands for mathematical competence as a rational consumer of goods, intelligent voter, and literate reader and conversationalist. The program in the first eight years of school bears much of the responsibility for helping pupils learn to solve their immediate numerical problems and to react with understanding to quantitative situations they will meet in the future.

The teacher who is to direct learning of arithmetic effectively requires specialized knowledge of numbers—their nature, algorithms, and applications. He must understand how pupils learn arithmetic, and must possess a familiarity with over-all strategy for directing its learning and a knowledge of numerous techniques for promoting that learning if he is to capture the interests of pupils and help them acquire the necessary concepts and skills.

This book is designed to help pre-service and in-service teachers guide pupils to learn arithmetic. So that the teacher may thoroughly comprehend the mathematical aspects of elementary school arithmetic, mathematical ideas such as properties of our number system, why numbers are placed in certain positions for computation, and the principles and relations underlying the operations are stressed. To provide perspective, descriptions of the needs for arithmetic in modern society, application of modern principles of learning to arithmetic instruction, and the history and important characteristics in the arithmetic curriculum are summarized.

This book describes an unusually large number and variety of experiences for pupils. Usually a new topic is introduced to an elementary school class through the technique suggested in the textbook that is being used. The teacher, however, will need many other approaches to ensure understanding by each individual pupil. Likewise, additional techniques will prove useful as topics are retaught in subsequent months or years. For these reasons, no one technique is recommended exclusively here, except in cases where the superiority of a method is rather well established. A variety of experiences is not alone sufficient to ensure effective learning—a proper sequence of these experiences is also essential. In planning such a suitable order of activities, the teacher will find here practical suggestions which carry the pupil through a series of steps from initial readiness for learning to application of the matured skill or concept in new situations.

MULDOON, M. W. *Learning To Teach*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd St. 1958. 303 pp. \$3.50. The content of this book

emphasizes prevention rather than correction of many common problems of instruction and discipline, and the necessity of previous planning as a basis for this. The presentation is concrete, often explaining step-by-step the procedures involved. It helps the beginner get ready for classroom situations, on-the-job conditions which do not conform to the theory he has learned, or which were not covered by it.

The book presents an orderly procedure for organizing a home room; discusses concretely the laying out of lesson plans, arousing and maintaining pupil interest, methods for teaching students to use texts and develop good study habits; and discusses ways of handling individual and remedial instruction. The author stresses things she believes must be known for successful classroom experience, good relations with pupils and co-workers, and satisfactory rating by the administration. Technical terms and wording are avoided. Emphasis is placed on ethical procedure, careful planning, and continuous self-criticism for in-service improvement. There is a chapter summary and a list of related questions at the end of each chapter.

MURPHEY, R. W. *How and Where To Look It Up*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. 735 pp. \$15. Here, at last, is a reference volume that makes the important job of research quick, easy, and efficient. It contains more than 3,900 reference sources annotated and indexed in some 10,000 analytical subject references. This invaluable book is designed to help everyone—layman or professional researcher—to find almost any kind of information.

This book is a comprehensive, all-inclusive guide to standard reference sources. With its handy subject and alphabetical arrangement, you learn *how* to find information you want, *where* to find it, and *how* to evaluate and use it. Thoroughly indexed and cross-referenced, the book is organized for instant use. Accurate and up-to-date, *it is as easy to use as a dictionary!*

This book covers every imaginable area of interest for research. The efficient format is designed to save time, prevent errors, and make research an interesting and rewarding job. *Librarians* will find that this easy-to-follow reference guide provides sources of answers for the thousands of questions asked by library users. *Students* will avoid false starts on study projects and save hours of dead-end research for source material.

Part I is a general survey of reference sources. It describes how reference sources are put together and how best to use them. It discusses the library and its uses, the mechanics of research, and the preparation of research papers.

PART II lists, analyzes, and evaluates all basic reference sources—general encyclopedias, annuals, guides to books and periodicals, directories, government, commercial, and organizational sources of factual and graphic material, and many more. PART III covers, under specific subject headings, sources of information about people, places, and things. It pinpoints facts on thousands of different subjects, all arranged for ready reference.

The Official Atlas of the Civil War. New York 16: Thomas Yoseloff, Inc., 11 East 36 St. 1958. 385 pp. (13 $\frac{3}{4}$ " x 17 $\frac{1}{4}$ "). \$40. After the Civil War, the War Dept. issued the official military records of both the Union and the Confederate armies in a monumental series of 128 volumes. In addition, as a vital accompaniment to these records, an Atlas was completed and published in the years 1891-95. Distributed originally only to recipients selected by

members of Congress and the Executive branch of government, this authoritative Atlas, containing hundreds of maps, has for many years been among the rarest items pertaining to the Civil War.

This new 1958 edition—the first public printing of an epic work that has been virtually unobtainable outside of the National Archives and a few major libraries—makes these important maps again available in all their beauty and infinite detail. In addition, one of America's most eminent historians, Henry Steele Commager, has contributed an informative Introduction (4 pages) which every student of the Civil War will value for the light it sheds on the history of military cartography.

Printed in multiple colors, each of the 175 plates (some with as many as 21 individual maps) is reproduced with great fidelity to the original as issued by the War Dept. Every engagement of any note or importance is mapped with actual battle lines and topographical detail. One sweeping series of 21 maps traces Sherman's march, day by day, from Atlanta to the sea. Gettysburg, Bull Run, Shiloh, Vicksburg, and every other major action as well as most of the minor skirmishes of the war are depicted in these maps with incomparable clarity of detail. Also included in this volume are plans of fortifications: War Dept's draftsmen's drawings of placements, casemates, redoubts, gun batteries, and vessels and specifications for the design of canvas pontoon bridges, wagons and various projectiles. One section contains original photographs of notable Civil War scenes from the office of the Chief of Engineers, United States Army, and lithographs in full color of the uniforms worn by Union and Confederate officers and soldiers, drawn with minute accuracy down to the finest particulars of buttons and insignia.

The volume is a volume of great value and intense fascination for everyone interested in military science and American history. In these pages, the student of the Civil War can journey back through time to witness the movement of troops, to observe the tide of battle, to understand the strategy of combat, and almost literally to take part in an historic struggle that was "the last of the old wars and the first of the new."

PATTERSON, C. H. *Counseling the Emotionally Disturbed*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 476 pp. \$6. For all counseling work and counseling courses, this is a basic text in the counseling of the emotionally disturbed.

This volume deals with vocational, educational and personal-social counseling for those with mental-emotional problems ranging from very mild to severe enough to require hospitalization, and for those who have recently been hospitalized. This is a complete and systematic treatment from the determination of the readiness of the client for vocational counseling, training, or employment, through counseling process, to the selection of the occupational objective.

The book brings together all the research in this new field, and the considered opinions of workers in the field. It is based on over ten years of experience in working with the emotionally disturbed, and will be indispensable to both student and practitioner. Every chapter has a concise summary and a list of references for additional reading.

RICE, G. P., JR. *Law for the Public Speaker*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Ave. 1958. 189 pp. \$2.75. This book deals with the place of speech and assembly in the United States. Its twelve essays

and addresses present important legal aspects of speech, assembly, and the right to be silent under law. It is designed to guide speakers of all sorts and everywhere who are untrained in law, and especially those who desire to participate in free but responsible meeting and talking in public as a basic right of citizenship. The roles of the courts, of laws, and of the police power are discussed in problems both general and specific. There is exposition of the legally protected interests of the public, speakers, audiences, and government in the process of creating and directing public opinion. Important new data on student attitudes and values toward free speech and assembly are also reported.

Included in this important volume are chapters on such significant topics as Supreme Court Decisions, Property Rights in Public Address, the Hostile Audience, Defamation by Slander, Lawful Use of Loud-Speaking Apparatus, and Student Attitudes and Values. The length of each chapter is determined by the importance of the subject which it discusses and upon the amount of data which were available.

RICHEY, R. W. *Planning for Teaching*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 566 pp. \$6. This book, like its predecessor, is designed to help the prospective teacher gain a valid and comprehensive understanding of what is involved in a teaching career. It helps him become thoroughly oriented to the field of education, shows him how to weigh critically the wisdom of entering the teaching profession, the duties and responsibilities of teachers, and the relationships between teachers and pupils. The last four parts of the text deal with such matters as salary, sick leave, retirement benefits and tenure, the structure of school organization and the financing of schools, the broad aspects of education and the professional challenge facing teachers today, and the persistent problems and issues that the student will encounter in teaching. Four new chapters have been added to this edition: "The Development of Modern Concepts of Education," "Historical Development of Our Schools," "Objectives of Education," and "Problems and Issues You May Face in Teaching."

The author stresses the vital role played by professional organizations in the improvement of both the individual teacher and the profession as a whole; while placing greater emphasis on the use of group processes to plan a teaching career.

A brief overview of each section enables the reader to grasp the relationship each separate chapter bears to the central purposes of the book. The number of self-evaluation aids and photographs has been increased, and there are three times as many charts, graphs, and diagrams as in the previous edition.

ROTHNEY, J. W. M. *Guidance Practices and Results*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd St. 1958. 566 pp. \$6. In their reading of his book, counselors will see the common and unique problems and concerns of high school students, techniques for collecting data about them, methods of putting the data to use in helping youth to help themselves to solve their problems, and procedures for evaluating the whole process by collection of follow-up data. They will see how the techniques, methods, and procedures described in this volume were actually tried out in what has come to be known as the Wisconsin Counseling Study.

The study was designed to set up a guidance program similar to those commonly provided in public secondary schools and to appraise its effectiveness.

Evaluation was done by securing evidence about the development of all the individuals who were counseled at the end of their school careers and three times within the five-year period after they had obtained their high school diplomas.

It should be noted that guidance workers, since they are members of an educational team, must work for ultimate objectives similar to those of other educators, even though their procedures may suggest temporary variation from them. In appraisal of the postschool outcomes of high school guidance services, then, the results must be stated as they are in this book, in terms of the extent to which guidance has helped to meet the objectives of the American secondary school. In order to do so, a determined effort was made to create circumstances typical of those in which counselors are placed and to use methods commonly employed by secondary-school counselors. The situations and methods were modified as they are in any good counseling situation by some new procedures, which are described. It is believed, however, that the situations in which the investigators worked were typical and that the methods employed may be used by conscientious counselors in secondary schools.

Particular emphasis has been placed on the follow-up procedure for evaluation, because guidance is the fastest growing of all services currently offered by public schools. When such growth in any educational practice occurs, the time must come for appraisal of its effects lest size be mistaken for value and claims be confused with results.

Many suggestions of methods for appraisal of guidance services have been offered but most fail to recognize that, since guidance is concerned with development of persons, appraisal procedures must attempt to determine whether development of individuals under guidance has occurred. And, since guidance is largely concerned with choices that individuals make among present and future actions, appraisal must deal with counselors' current and future performances.

School District Organization. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, a department of the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth St. 1958. 324 pp. \$5. Is your school district in need of reorganization? If your school district is too small, too large, fails to function properly; if you are constructing a new building or reshaping your curriculum or revising your school finance plan, you need this book. It is jam-packed with good ideas. It treats in a careful manner many of the most important problems in school administration. It includes: an analysis of three different types of legislation for school district reorganization, features of state finance plans that encourage and that retard school district reorganization; school district organization problems in suburban areas, administrative organization in a large city district, characteristics of a satisfactory school district, and relationship of size of school to educational program.

This book is a working tool for school board members, school administrators, legislators, and other citizens who are interested in having good schools. Based on a comprehensive two-year study of school district organization in every part of the country, it offers practical suggestions for: collecting and assembling factual information, securing state approval, handling public relations programs, and holding community hearings.

SCOTT, A., and R. B. WESTKAEMPER. *From Program to Facilities in Physical Education.* New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33 St. 1958.

501 pp. \$6.50. To make possible better programs of health education and physical education in schools and colleges, this book describes the nature and scope of the modern and probable future programs, and suggests standards and details of design and construction to the end that more economical and more functional facilities be provided. Directed to students, architects, engineers, teachers, administrators, school boards, building committees, manufacturers of equipment, *et. al.*, it is a guide to better programs via better facilities. It deals with college programs; it includes a description of the programs together with a detailed treatment of standards of design and construction. It can be used in pre-service and graduate courses; deals with long-range planning; and includes a comprehensive treatment of planning guides. New ideas are presented for the conservation of space and the economical erection of facilities. Tables, charts, drawings are presented throughout the text. This book is composed of 11 chapters: (A) Long-Range Planning; (B) Planning Guides; (C) Indoor Facilities in Schools; (D) Indoor Facilities in Colleges; (E) The Natatorium; (F) The Field House; (G) General Plant Features—Part One; (H) General Plant Features—Part Two; (I) Outdoor Facilities in Schools and Colleges; (J) The Stadium; and (K) Factors Common to All Outdoor Areas.

SPEARS, HAROLD. *Curriculum Planning Through In-Service Programs*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1958. 364 pp. \$4.50. One of the fastest-growing movements in American education today is the in-service study program for training teachers and staff members. In their persistent search for ways and means of improving the quality of classroom instruction, more and more schools are adopting some form of on-the-job training of teachers.

To demonstrate how the in-service plan operates, and what it accomplishes, author Harold Spears reports on some 25 typical programs he has observed in school systems across the country. No attempt is made to single out the "best" examples, or to fit the in-service movement into any particular philosophic mold. This book simply describes common practices and invites the reader to form his own judgments.

As the author points out, in-service training has to a great extent merged with and enlarged upon curriculum planning. Whereas the latter seeks only to upgrade the instructional program proper, in-service plans go beyond that by giving the teacher an opportunity to "grow on the job." To indicate various paths, toward this goal, Mr. Spears explains at length how the schools under scrutiny here have organized their programs and developed certain statements and materials which have proven highly successful.

A novel feature of this book is its series of amusing cartoons drawn by the author himself to lend visual imagery and impact to important ideas. These drawings, combined with Mr. Spears' simple and direct prose, give the reader a vivid picture of curriculum study programs in action.

STOCK, D., and H. A. THELEN. *Emotional Dynamics and Group Culture*. New York 3: New York University Press, Washington Square. 1958. 314 pp. \$6. Chapter 1 provides a broad orientation within which the examination of the research will be more meaningful. The research tensions and motivations, three communicated explicitly, have given direction to the research from the beginning even though the authors could not then have "put them into words." Chapter 2 gives a simple starting statement of Bion's funda-

mental notions. This is the beginning of the development of theory of group operation. The first chapter of each section adds further details, elaborations, and modifications of the theory, as needed to cope with the researches in that section. Chapter 23 tries to assess just where the authors' experiments leave the theory: what principles have stood up under test, which ones remain too poorly defined for confident use, and which ones require further work for clarification of meaning. Chapter 24 is oriented to practice and, without departing from the theory, attempts to translate into practical terms the major implications of the entire work for those who are concerned with groups as social instruments.

STRANG, RUTH. *Group Work in Education*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd St. 1958. 334 pp. \$5.50. The author has assembled here the best that literature and research offer on the origin, growth, and dynamics of the increasingly important curricular and extracurricular group activities in the educational process. She describes the nature of student groups, the knowledge, attitudes, and skills to which an adequate group program should contribute, and the ways and means of attaining desired educational results and by-products.

This volume supersedes her earlier *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*. Although it includes those sections of the previous work that have been most helpful to students and others responsible for group activities, it is essentially a new book. The proportion of practical to theoretical content has been enlarged to take account of the newer knowledge of group dynamics and leadership functions, thus helping to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Two new chapters on "Group Work in the Classroom" and "Group Work in the Home Room or Other Small Guidance Unit" have been added.

TRAXLER, A. E., editor. *Long-Range Planning for Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave. 1958. 195 pp. \$2. This is a report of the twenty-second educational conference, New York City, October 31 and November 1, 1957, held under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education.

Long-range planning for education presents itself naturally as the theme for the Twenty-second Educational Conference sponsored jointly by the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. The age of atoms for war and for peace, the age of missiles, and the age of man-launched earth satellites present our schools and colleges with problems and opportunities for their rapidly increasing enrollments.

Throughout the conference the individual student was the center of discussion. The analysis of admissions policies recognized such problems as the necessity of refining testing instruments to encompass new domains of aptitude. But time and again, the speakers pointed out that motivations, attitudes, and expectations of students themselves are vastly important in what the schools and colleges can help them achieve. The concrete examples given of changing values and attitudes of college students offer thought-provoking material for the consideration of all educators—teachers, administrators, guidance personnel.

VANDER WERF, L. S. *How To Evaluate Teachers and Teaching*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co., 232 Madison Ave. 1958. 64 pp. \$1. The pamphlet is organized as follows: Chapter 1 is devoted to those characteristics of

teachers which may normally be appraised prior to professional service; that is, health, personality, ability, and knowledge, even though school systems will maintain a continuing interest in and concern for them. Attention is called to the suggestions offered at the end of each section in this chapter. Chapter 2 is concerned essentially with the evaluation of teaching, what we could term "professional know-how," which begins in preservice programs and continues as a strategic concern to all school personnel. Again, the suggestions listed are intended to be of practical help. Chapter 3 summarizes some practices of school systems to indicate the range of evaluative programs and to serve as sources for ideas and approaches which might be applicable elsewhere. Chapter 4 points out what to many may be surprising developments in the business world. Certain features may be encouraging, others not, depending on the reader's prejudices.

Finally, Chapter 5 attempts to summarize some important principles of evaluation and to suggest a program which is both reasonable and professional.

The bibliography brings the pamphlet to a close. The reader will find all references made directly to this section, thus avoiding the need to use footnotes.

WHITE, VERNÁ. *Studying the Individual Pupil*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 256 pp. \$4. Stressing the need for study of the individual child, this book emphasizes an interdisciplinary approach, demonstrating the necessity for cooperation among teachers, school personnel, allied professional personnel, and laymen. Therefore, while the text has been written for pre-service and in-service elementary- and secondary-school teachers, it will be highly useful to all those allied with the teacher. The book outlines practical methods by which teachers, without, special training, can make studies and interpret the results as a basis for procedure. Points are amply illustrated by a profusion of actual case studies. Cautions are spelled out, with special stress on the need for school personnel who know when to refer pupils to specialists for help. The book is composed of a preface and 7 chapters: (A) Why Study Pupils as Individuals? (B) Is the Study of Individual Pupils Possible for Classroom Teachers? (C) What Factors Indicate Need for Study of Individual Pupils? (D) What Procedures and Techniques Are Feasible and Practical for Classroom Teachers to Use in Assembling Data? (E) How Should Data Gathered for an Individual Be Synthesized and Interpreted? (F) What Cautions Should Be Exercised by Teachers as They Study Individual Pupils? and (G) What Are the Implications of the Individual Point of View for Pre-Service and In-Service Education of Teachers?

WIGGINS, S. P. *Successful High School Teaching*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park St. 1958. 391 pp. \$5. It is in a climate of both anxiety and hope that this book is published. Directed to the teachers and prospective teachers of the nation's junior and senior high schools—the locale of the present penetrating scrutiny—the book is, as the author describes it, more than simply a book in methods. It considers the teacher's responsibility in the community as well as in the classroom and the school. It sets as criteria for effective education that the secondary school must serve the educational needs of all youth in their challenging variety, must function closely with many of society's other agencies, and must provide for intelligent adjust-

ment to social change while making optimum use of our social heritage. The acceptance of these responsibilities gives practical meaning and direction to the work of teachers in American secondary schools.

In this text the author shows, in concrete terms, how junior and senior high school teachers can make creative contributions to the important job of educating youth.

WILLIAMS, J. F.; C. L. BROWNELL; and E. L. VARNIER. *The Administration of Health Education and Physical Education*, fifth edition. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Co., W. Washington Square. 1958. 401 pp. It is the business of administration to get things done. The good administrator keeps the gears of human effort well oiled by clear policies, exact procedures, and reasonable standards. This book should be a great help in stating policies, defining procedures, and developing standards. The text is planned for those who work in schools and colleges; it stresses problems of the former and presents both information relative to the intricate administration of the large city school system and materials which enable the beginning teacher in a rural community to plan his work more effectively. Its chief function is to be a text for men and women students of health education and physical education. Years of research were devoted to the collection and arrangement of administrative problems. These are discussed in their functional setting. Extended discussion of child and adolescent psychology has been omitted purposely, since information of this sort rightfully belongs in other texts. In presenting the administrative problems, however, the authors have been mindful of the need for including sufficient background material to give direction to the argument, and to recognize conflicting points of view in educational theory.

This *Fifth Edition* provides four main parts or divisions with the various chapters placed in a functional position rather than a logical one; such an arrangement should be approved by teachers engaged in the professional preparation of students, and also by the students themselves.

The four parts of the text are: *Leadership, Program Facilities, and State and Community Relationships*. Under the several parts are chapter discussions of the administrative problems that arise in the leadership of a program, in the conduct of the program, in providing and maintaining facilities, and in establishing desirable state and community relationships.

Your AASA in 1957-58. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W. 1958. 271 pp. \$3. The report is a brief summary of some of the significant problems faced by the public schools of the nation together with some references to the role played by the school administrator and his professional organization, the American Association of School Administrators. Furthermore, brief attention is given to a description of the business and operations of the officers and staff of the latter organization.

It also is a record of the regional conventions held in St. Louis, February 22-25; San Francisco, March 8-11; and Cleveland, March 29-April 1, 1958.—convention speeches of 36 participants.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ABELL, ELIZABETH, editor. *Westward, Westward, Westward*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Ave. 1958. 243 pp. \$2.95. From the lonely hunters who blazed the trail to the great wagon trains that toiled over mountain and prairie to the Pacific Ocean, here is the story of the men and women who carved an empire on a savage continent.

"Daniel Boone came first," says Robert Croates in his story of the men who broke the trail. Walter Havighurst writes of the ships that brought the settlers to the raw, new land. Paul Horgan tells the story of the mountain men. Francis Parkman reports a visit to Fort Laramie in 1846. A vigilante of the old West recalls the last triumph of the road agents in Montana, and Captain R. B. Marcy describes the forty-niners on their way to the California gold fields. Mari Sandoz paints an unforgettable picture of the buffaloes and the buffalo hunters, while Wallace Stegner follows the Mormons on their incredible trek afoot to the promised land. J. Frank Dobie, Will James, Joe B. Frantz, and Julian Ernest Choate write of the West they knew and loved. And there are stories by Dorothy Johnson, Oliver La Farge, John Prescott, H. L. Davis, and Lucile Vaughan Payne.

ADLER, IRVING. *Magic House of Numbers*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 128 pp. 35¢. This book explains the basic whys and hows of our number system. It contains many curiosities, riddles, tricks, and games. A Signet Key book.

ARNOLD, PAULINE. *Rate Yourself*. New York 20: Perma Books, 630 Fifth Ave. 1958. 176 pp. 35¢. This book contains a series of fascinating and informative tests, through which a person can measure his intelligence, his logic, his memory, his knowledge, and his aptitude with numbers, words, etc.

ATKINSON, M. J. *Indians of the Southwest*. San Antonio 6: Naylor Co., 918 N. St. Mary's St. 1958. 353 pp. \$5. This book tells the Indian's story—not a tale of blood, thunder and war, but an ethnological study of his home life, manners and religious customs. It tells of his arts, his sciences and of the laws by which he lived before the white man came, bringing European diseases, strife, alcohol and death. It was only then that the Indian became the Vanishing American.

The greedy Spanish, in their efforts to find a new water route to the riches of India and Cathay, sent Columbus sailing westward at the end of the Fifteenth Century; but long before this the American aborigine was roaming the vast prairies of the great Southwest.

In his limitless homeland he lived, followed his tribal customs, worshipped his gods, fought his many wars and buried his dead. He was not a "red" man, but in fact a Mongoloid, transplanted from Asia probably twenty thousand years before the coming of the Conquistadors.

BADEAU, J. S. *The Lands Between*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 144 pp. \$2.95. The most efficient way to become acquainted with new places, whether neighborhoods or countries, is to be shown around by someone who knows them well. And fortunate indeed is the stranger whose guide is not only knowledgeable but responsive.

This book of background information about the Middle East might be described as a concise and popularly-written encyclopedia. The chapters com-

bine the informative with the informal as they focus on the look of the land, its contours and its wealth. The people of the Middle East come into view, turning from their benches and their plows to explain their pasts and squint hopefully at the sky of the future.

The reader explores the maze of Middle Eastern Faith and culture, observing how tightly they are woven together and discovering that their fabric is being strained in this day of growing interest in the culture of the West. He is able to see and comprehend the workings of politics, nationalism, and economy.

BARR, CATHRINE. *Jeff and the Fourteen Eyes*. New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc. 1958. 32 pp. \$2.25. Jeff thought night was meant for camping out. But then came the night he saw a mysterious eye peeping in through the tent flap at him and Ted.

Jeff was scared—especially when the eye kept getting bigger and bigger! But he just had to find out what it was. The surprise of his discovery and the unique humor of the illustrations—which let the reader in on the secret—will delight boys and girls.

BATES, D. R., editor. *Space Research and Exploration*. New York 16: William Sloane Associated, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 287 pp. \$4. This book was written for the general reader by a panel of world-renowned scientists. It has been widely acclaimed in England and was enthusiastically recommended in advance of publication by leading Americans in the field of science.

Fully illustrated with charts and diagrams, this is perhaps the most comprehensive book yet published on the theory and practice of space research and exploration.

Subjects covered include: rockets and rocket propellants, exploration of the upper atmosphere, cosmic radiation, meteor hazards beyond the atmosphere, the earth satellite program, the manned satellite station, space navigation, medical and biological problems, conditions on the moon and nearer planets.

BEALS, CARLETON. *House in Mexico*. New York 22: Hastings House, 41 E. 50th St. 1958. 222 pp. \$4.50. In this book the author tells part of the timeless story that is Mexico. Although it is for the most part a small, intimate one—of daily life in the little village of Coyoacan, "The Town of Red Dogs," a place more ancient than Mexico City—the large one is always there. In the people first of all with their admixture of primitive mores, ferocious loyalties, and steadfast affections. And then in the country itself—not that small part of it, however, which belongs to the tourist but the vast back-of-beyond regions where often Time has seemed to stand still from even before the days of the Conquistadors. For the author several times took off on horseback trips across the great mountains and wildernesses into remote corners of the country and encountered adventures not usually met with in so-called modern times.

But the heart of his story lies within his own household presided over by that "best woman of this world," Petra, who began by being his maid-of-all-work and ended—with no increase in salary either!—by adding to the menage her wayward husband and her three children. In the process it was only to be expected that her employer would become involved in everything that

pertained to the daily drama of her, to say the least, varied family; Jose, the husband though not the father; Maria, the spindle-legged younger daughter whose heart and—eventually—hand were won by the fierce charcoal *contrabandista*; Mario, the youngest, who “could rarely keep his chubby thumb out of the soup” when he waited on table but was in all other ways beyond words engaging; and last of all Lupe, the beauty of the family, who loved only chauffeurs although they proved invariably faithless.

BENNETT, C. E. *Physics Problems*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Ave. 1958. 256 pp. \$1.75. Special attention is paid to the meanings of formulas, which are simply shorthand expressions for relationships between physical concepts. These formulas are illustrated by sample problems worked out in some detail, following a procedure which is based upon logical approach and careful analysis. In this manner it is hoped that the student will learn how to set up and tackle problems generally.

This book is intended as a supplement to a textbook, even a supplement to an outline of a typical textbook. The entire presentation of concepts is directed toward problem solving, yet this may not always seem obvious to the student.

Since this is a book devoted to the problem-solving aspects of the first-year physics course, only those topics are included which lend themselves to quantitative treatment at the first-year level. This means that no consideration will be given to such topics as electronics and nuclear physics. In most of the elementary physics texts these topics are treated in a more or less qualitative or descriptive manner. Questions, rather than numerical problems, are in order in these fields which, if treated quantitatively, would lead to problems somewhat beyond the scope of the first-year course.

BENTON, WILLIAM. *This Is the Challenge*. New York 3: New York University Press, Washington Square. 1958. 270 pp. \$3.95. This book, by a former U. S. Senator from Connecticut, is based on Mr. Benton's 1955 trip to Russia. It includes a foreword by John Gunther and a prefatory note by Adlai E. Stevenson. The book sums up the conclusions of the author concerning Soviet education and technical skill.

Two years before the dramatic orbiting of the Sputniks, Mr. Benton traveled to Russia as publisher of the Encyclopaedia Britannica on a fact-finding trip. Accompanied by his wife, their son John, and an interpreter—the first such nonofficial family group to receive visitors' visas since before the war—Mr. Benton had a look at the Soviet educational system. He returned with information astonishing to many, and since then widely publicized. He contends that the Russians, far from running their schools as propaganda machines, are not only turning out more scientists and technicians than the United States, but also will shortly surpass us in total educational effort if we continue to indulge in intellectual napping. Today it is Mr. Benton's belief that Americans have only begun to understand the multiple nature of the Soviet threat and that the message in today's headlines must be documented and discussed in the light of firsthand information and observation.

BLATTER, DOROTHY. *The Thirsty Village*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 128 pp. \$2.95. Jirjis and Ahmed live in the country of Lebanon, in neighboring villages that are so close together they are almost one. Yet they are widely separated in other ways. The village

where Jirjis lives is mostly Christian, while Ahmed's is mainly Muslim. A single fountain serves them both and because water is scarce and therefore precious, there is continual bickering about it by the thirsty people of the villages.

Jirjis and Ahmed come to know and like each other at the summer camp to which they both go. They swear to be blood brothers to each other but their parents are not pleased with their companionship.

The two boys persist in their friendship, through all the many adventures that come to them—visiting the shepherds in the hills, meeting a wolf, discovering a blind girl, finding a thief, going to a hospital. Because friendship is catching, in the end the two boys involve the villages in their happy fellowship. Jirjis and Ahmed find themselves the unexpected possessors of a sum of money. Instead of spending it upon themselves and their families, they use it to benefit the people of both villages.

BLOUGH, G. O., editor. *Young People's Book of Science*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 448 pp. \$4.50. Here is a book that fills a great need as an all-around science roundup—448 pages of important reading, covering all the far-ranging fields of scientific development. Completely up-to-date, dramatically arranged and profusely illustrated, it gives today's young people a full, significant picture of the world of science.

We are living with rockets, man-made moons, man-made weather and space stations, as well as new automobiles, refrigerators, and television. Every boy and girl, regardless of the career planned, must have at least a general knowledge of science; otherwise, he just can't understand the world in which he lives. And there could be no better introduction than this personally conducted tour by the man who is acknowledged as one of the greatest experts in making science more interesting and more meaningful to the scientists of tomorrow.

BOOTH, E. R. *Kalena*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 190 pp. \$3. Kalena lives in a village in the Belgian Congo. All the girls her age are married, but Kalena is neither child nor wife. Although promised to Mulela, son of a neighboring chief, she has to remain at home to take care of her ailing mother.

Mulela has work in the city; he likes the white man's ways and takes Lucien for his name. He wants his future wife to learn to cook and sew and Kalena goes to the mission school for a year. While she has no objection to learning how to keep house she enjoys much more her classes in reading and writing. She is an eager student and her teacher encourages her to write down some of the stories she has heard from the old storyteller in her village. One of these stories wins her an honorable mention in a contest.

BURCKHARDT, JACOB. *Judgments on History and Historians*. Boston 8: Beacon Press, Inc., 25 Beacon St. 1958. 304 pp. \$7.50. The historical fragments collected here were gathered by Emil Dürr from Burckhardt's own lecture notes for history courses that the great scholar gave at the University of Basel from 1865 to 1885—twenty years of the master's most vigorous thought. Never given appropriate recognition in his own age, Burckhardt now ironically accepts the accolade of generations just reaching an appreciation of his true stature.

"The very qualities that make Burckhardt's work so unique and attractive," says the translator, Harry Zohn, "even exasperatingly charming—the tone of

improvisation; the compressed, elliptical style, by turns professorial and colloquial; the occasional contradictions and ambiguities; the abrupt shifts—also provide a real challenge for the translator." He might have added, "—and delightful to the reader," for these essays are historical writings which are also literature: a rare combination. In fact, Burckhardt is credited by many scholars with being the father of modern historical writing—in contrast with the ponderous and heavy exposition of Ranke's massive studies.

BURT, KENDAL, and JAMES LEASOR. *The One That Got Away*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 Fifth Ave. 1958. 238 pp. 50¢. The escape and pursuit of a Luftwaffe pilot in wartime England.

CADELL, ELIZABETH. *Shadows on the Water*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Ave. 1958. 219 pp. \$3.50. The dashing Mrs. Cadell has a number of new tricks up her charming sleeve in this novel of an English widow who tangles with a murderer in the very best circles of Lisbon.

Kate Verney, one of Mrs. Cadell's most delightful types, is first seen on the boat train from London. She is off to visit her daughter and new grandson in Buenos Aires—though she doesn't quite make it in the pages of this book.

Any Cadell devotee will know that in the very nature of things, Mrs. Kate Verney is honor-bound to become involved with the fellow passengers in her compartment. They happen to be young and attractive: Lindy Barron, a lovely girl of 19; her younger brother, Rex; and Neil Harper, who is not at all as impervious to Lindy's charms as his poker face would suggest.

When Mrs. Verney learns that the Barron youngsters have just lost their mother and are on their way to a father they can scarcely remember, her heart is theirs. And she needs every bit of it to cope with the situation that meets them on the dock in Lisbon.

No loving father appears. In fact, no one knows where Mr. Barron is—and the horse he had been riding that morning was found dead at the bottom of a canyon.

CAMM, F. J. *Mathematical Tables and Formulae*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 15 E. 40th St. 1958. 144 pp. \$2.75. This handy compendium brings together, for easy reference, the most frequently consulted arithmetical, trigonometrical and algebraic tables and formulae.

Included are the standard mathematical symbols—simple and compound interest tables—weights and measures—mathematical and geometrical progressions—conversion tables—laws of physics—formulas in algebra and calculus—and many, many others.

CAMUS, ALBERT. *Exile and the Kingdom*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 213 pp. \$3.50. The hero of this book of extraordinary intensity is modern man himself. All through it one voice is heard—the voice of the author, convincing us once again that he is the conscience of our troubled epoch.

Here a wife betrays her husband, leaving his bed to give herself to the desert night; a trusting schoolteacher, who might be any one of us, learns that the freedom not to choose imposes a tragic penalty; in a satiric fable, a carefree artist is caught between society's values and the pursuit of his solitary star; and a French engineer purifies himself through an act of brotherhood in the Brazilian jungle.

CANNING, VICTOR. *The Dragon Tree*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 425 Fourth Ave. 1958. 317 pp. \$3.95. Major John Richmond is perhaps the most important person in the book. He is a good soldier, a born gentleman, a man seeking love. He must keep the lid on one of the hottest political charades facing England today.

The setting: an island in the South Atlantic near the coast of Africa. Here the British hold—for an uncertain period of time of detention—three key people who have inflamed nationalist sentiment on the island of Cyrenia. They are: *Hadid Chebir*, "Golden Boy" of Cyrenian aspirations. Oxford educated and married to a beautiful English girl, he has become something less than the man he was; *Marion*, his wife, an ex-shop girl who has tasted all the pleasures of sophisticated living and now is drawn again to the simple things she remembers in England; *Colonel Mawzi*, the Iron Man of the nationalist movement who has no faith in anything but victory.

Citizenship Education Project. *Laboratory Practices in Citizenship*. New York 27: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1958. 320 pp. The Citizenship Education Project (CEP) was started at Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1949 under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. Its purpose is to help schools do a better job of teaching the rights and responsibilities of citizenship—what American freedom means and how to keep it.

CEP has worked directly with administrators and teachers in hundreds of interested schools throughout the nation. It assists in setting up programs to awaken the interest of young people in public affairs, to deepen their understanding of and devotion to our free institutions, our historical documents, our cultural heritage. These programs combine practical citizenship experience in the school and community with reading and study to broaden and strengthen the insights gained through practical experience.

This book, *Laboratory Practices in Citizenship*, is one of the principal planning books intended for teachers and students of American citizenship. It suggests practical experiences in citizenship and makes use of the community as the laboratory. A companion volume, *Resources for Citizenship*, suggests materials for reading and study. A third volume, *Building Better Programs in Citizenship*, describes and discusses the nature and use of the laboratory technique in the teaching of American citizenship.

COELHO, G. V. *Changing Images of America*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press. 1958. 169 pp. \$3.50. Over 30,000 foreign students are studying in the United States, and in addition to acquiring professional knowledge and skills, they are developing an appreciation of the American way of life and lasting ties of friendship—such is our hope. But is the hope justified? Does the exchange program perhaps make for us enemies as well as friends? Or has it no significant effects at all? Social science has a way of asking just such embarrassing questions as these. Evaluative research, a close cousin of "action research," is a recent development in social science. An increasing number of studies today are attempting to evaluate exchange-of-persons programs. The author reviews some of these, and makes an original contribution of his own.

Collier's Encyclopedia 1957 Year Book. New York: P. F. Collier and Son Corporation. 1958. 760 pp. (7½" x 10¼"). This yearbook is a chronicle of events and achievements of the year, published as an annual supplement to *Collier's Encyclopedia*. The editors have provided a comprehensive coverage of material for all levels of public interest—local, state, national, and interna-

tional. Some of the events of outstanding interest include, in the international area, the Suez crisis and the Hungarian revolt; in the national area, the election, business activities, and education; and in science, atomic energy. Over 130 articles are devoted to countries and regions of the world. The book contains a 22-page index. It is a complete alphabetical listing of all important subjects, names, and places which are either discussed or referred to in all the articles throughout the book. Also included are numerous illustrations and pictures.

Collier's World Atlas and Gazetteer. New York: P. F. Collier and Son Corporation, 640 Fifth Ave. 1957. 480 pp. (11" x 14 $\frac{1}{4}$ "). The first part of this book (120 pages) is devoted to maps in color. The first seven are maps of the world and special regions, the next 33 are maps of Europe and Asia, followed by 4 of Africa, 4 of Australia and Oceania, 8 of South America, 61 of Canada and the United States and 2 pages of maps of Europe and of Asia in 1914, 1938, and 1950. These maps show the relationships by regions and by countries. A special feature of these maps is the marginal index which appears on each map, giving the population in round numbers and the location of the principal cities and towns.

The second part of the atlas discusses the geography of the world, the United States, the individual states, United States possessions and trust territories, and Canada. Here the interrelationships with which geography is concerned are emphasized; and the text is supplemented with maps and tables which supply facts on a wide variety of geographical topics. All this interesting and useful information can be readily located through the table of contents.

The third major division of the atlas is a combined World Index and Gazetteer. Here in one alphabetical arrangement, the more than 75,000 names shown on the maps appear with appropriate symbols, so that each can be located easily. The names are of political subdivisions, such as countries, provinces, regions, and states; of cities and towns; and of physical features, such as rivers; bays, mountains, and islands. The index not only identifies these 75,000 features and makes their location on the maps easy, but it also supplies population data for all cities and towns, countries, and administrative units.

In addition there are over 5,000 of the more important cities and towns for which information is given of geographic, industrial, or trade importance, usually with some historical background and a few facts of tourist interest. Many pictures and maps of business sections of more than fifty cities are included. Of these 5,000 cities and towns, about 3,300 are in the United States and the balance in foreign countries.

COOPER, EDMUND. *Deadly Image.* New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 190 pp. 35¢. One twentieth century throwback fights for his life in a future world of mechanically perfect "men."

COOPER, J. F. *The Pioneers.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co., 432 Fourth Ave. 1958. 496 pp. \$3.50. Set in the wilderness about his home on the shores of Otsego Lake, the author's third novel introduced the aging hunter, Natty Bumppo. As the hero of the five volumes that constitute the *Leatherstocking Tales*, he became one of the great characters of American literature, with the various aliases Leatherstocking, Deerslayer and Pathfinder.

This attractive new edition contains sixteen full-page illustrations of the author and his environment and reproductions of pictures for early editions of the book, together with a foreword and descriptive captions by Allen Klots, Jr.

COPELAND, FRANCES. *Land Between*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 404 Fourth Ave. 1958. 160 pp. \$3. Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, and Iraq! These are names which appear and reappear in our daily newspaper. But how much do young people know of the the young people of these countries—their customs, their dress, their food, their schools, their sports, their holidays? In a book written with great love and affection, and based on five years of first-hand observation, we are given all of this information.

This is a book about the people of these four glamorous countries, completely free of politics or political bias.

COX, DONALD, and MICHAEL STOIKO. *Spacepower*. Philadelphia 7: The John C. Winston Co., 1010 Arch St. 1958. 288 pp. \$4.50. Man has begun his escape from the Earth. Our last frontier has been crossed by manmade satellites. To every thinking person the implication is clear.

Soon, with the gigantic thrust of a launching rocket, the information gathered in satellite-tracking systems will begin having its effect on our civilization—our jobs, factories, farms, medicine, travel, homelife, our relations with other countries. But how?

These questions and many others are answered in this book. It probes deeply and, with startling clarity, examines the human wants, needs, hopes and problems in the fantastic new world which man is building for himself.

This is not a technical treatise on rockets and missiles nor is it science fiction. It is a thought-provoking book that analyzes the profound changes about to take place—changes that millions now alive will surely see.

COY, HAROLD. *The First Book of the Supreme Court*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Ave. 1958. 64 pp. \$1.95. Here is an introduction to one of America's great institutions, and an explanation of why the Supreme Court acts as one of the strongest fortresses to safeguard democracy.

CUNLIFFE, MARCUS. *George Washington, Man and Monument*. Boston 6: Little, Brown & Co., 34 Beacon St. 1958. 248 pp. \$4. The name of Washington has grown into a monument, both real and symbolic. Built up of the lyricism of poets, the admiration of historians, and such endearing falsities as Parson Weems's cherry-tree legend, it has given us a myth—but lost the man beneath. Napoleon, Lincoln, Nelson—they are all vivid individuals to us in spite of their fame. Only George Washington has remained a figure of legend.

Step by step, as we go back into the past, the myths fall away and the small details of humanity replace them. Contrary to common belief, Washington's childhood was a hard one. His father died early; he received little formal education; and his only source of patronage was the powerful Fairfax family. In his youth he was ambitious, impatient of criticism, and perhaps overly concerned with his reputation (as a fatherless younger son might well be).

His early military career was a disappointment to him, and even as General, the author points out, Washington was not a perfect soldier, but one whose chief virtue was his dogged perseverance. Throughout his later life, as his reputation grew and his responsibilities multiplied, he was often uncertain, never conscious of himself as the child of destiny. When he was elected President he wrote: "I should consider myself as entering upon an unexplored field, enveloped on every side with clouds and darkness."

This, then, is George Washington, a man who in the lonely grandeur of office often dreamed of home; who sometimes stumbled, sometimes had regrets; and in whose life there was a great deal of pathos, as well as success.

DAANE, C. J.; J. V. LINDEN; B. E. DAVID; M. A. BRUNSON and P. K. VONK. *Introduction to College*. Boston 8: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 41 Mt. Vernon St. 1958. 176 pp. \$2.95. The aim of this book is to provide a link between the physical environment of the immediate past and that of the immediate present. It discusses the changes in academic environment, the study techniques used in college in comparison to those used in high school. It is designed for both class and individual use. The book is divided into five chapters—"The New Student Looks at College," "Studying Effectively," "Personal and Social Adjustment," "Planning Your Career," and "Philosophy of Life." Included also is an appendix containing suggested programs for group projects and topics.

DALE, E. E., and J. D. MORRISON. *Pioneer Judge*. Cedar Rapids, Iowa: The Torch Press. 1958. 451 pp. \$5. This is far more than the story of the rise of a poor Alabama farm boy to fame and fortune and of his outstanding service as Federal district judge. In that capacity his work did not differ too much from that of scores of other pioneer jurists who did so much to bring law and order to the untamed American Frontier.

Before his appointment as Federal district judge, however, Robert Lee Williams had already had a long and distinguished career in public service. As national committeeman from Indian Territory and member of the constitutional convention he had played a large part in the formation of the new state of Oklahoma and as justice of the supreme court and governor, had been a powerful force in its government. As a result he came to the Federal bench with an enormous influence in Oklahoma government and politics which he retained even as Federal judge and as long as he lived. His life story is, therefore, largely a political history of Oklahoma for a period of more than forty years.

DANIELS, W. M., editor. *The American Labor Movement*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Ave. 1958. 223 pp. \$2. Divided into six sections, this book opens with a section on the 170-odd year history of American labor's organizing efforts and struggle and recognition. The second section depicts labor's position today, after the merging of the AFL-CIO into the first unified group ever to speak unchallenged for the vast majority of the nation's 18 million organized workers.

In the third section are discussed the problems posed by labor's activities and objectives in our economic and political society. Next the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act of 1947 (Taft-Hartley) and its application are discussed by labor, management and government spokesmen.

The section on "right-to-work" laws, as they are called by their sponsors, offers a variety of opinions on this key controversy. The topic is discussed on one side as "compulsory unionism" and on the other side as "union security," or as "right-to-work" and "right-to-wreck" laws.

The book concludes with a section on violence and corruption in unions and on their internal democracy, what is being done about these problems, and what it is suggested may or should be done. All in all, 48 timely articles are reprinted from various publications or speeches made on the subject.

DAVIES, D. R., and R. T. LIVINGSTON. *You and Management*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St. 1958. 280 pp. \$4.50. This book is addressed to those who would like to see management or administration in perspective. It is especially intended for those who would like to con-

sider management as a career, or those who seek advancement in management, once in.

The concept herein described is basic to managing or administering in any field of human endeavor. The authors tried to eliminate any aspects not universally common.

From the first chapter's get-acquainted session to the final chapter's attention, the purpose is to help the reader understand himself better in relation to his goal, in relation to his success in management.

DERLETH, AUGUST. *The Moon Tenders*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th St. 1958. 204 pp. \$3. Steve Grendon and Sim Jones planned, now that June days of freedom had finally arrived, to build themselves a raft and go down the Wisconsin on an exploring trip. They assumed that they would be able to talk their parents into approving the expedition, but decided they would worry about that later.

Actually theirs wasn't just any old exploring trip. They had a very definite plan. They were going to hunt for treasure, the lost Winnebago treasure which Steve had read about in a history book and which might still be hidden in a cave on Bogus Bluff.

It took some doing to get the expedition started, but finally they were on the way, and before they knew it they were up to their ears in the biggest excitement of their lives.

DIGGINS, R. V., and C. E. BUNDY. *Sheep Production*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 381 pp. \$4.90. This book covers every aspect of the production and marketing of sheep for all sections of the United States. Here in one concise volume you'll find such subjects as: opportunities in the sheep business; breeds, breed selection, and selection of feeder lambs; feeds and sheep feeding, new developments in the use of self-fed lamb rations, antibiotics, animal fats, mones and urea.

There's a wealth of information on management, shelters and equipment, the best practices for range flocks, farm flocks, and hot house lamb production. Methods of breeding, diseases, parasites, and the best methods of controlling sheep ailments are completely covered. There's a full treatment of the grading and marketing of wool and exhibiting sheep at livestock shows.

DOWNEY, FAIRFAX. *The Guns at Gettysburg*. New York 3: David McKay Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 304 pp. \$5. The guns still stand at Gettysburg amid the markers and the monuments on the hallowed ground. And it is fitting that they do, for Gettysburg marked not only the high tide of the Confederacy and the turning point of the war, but also the greatest cannonade ever seen in this hemisphere. In no battle of the Civil War did artillery play a more decisive role than it did here, and no factor contributed more to the Union victory than the superior handling of the Federal cannon. Amid all the discussions of the errors of generalship on both sides, too little credit has been given to that all-but-forgotten hero of the battle, General Henry Jackson Hunt, the chief of the Union artillery. In reappraising and retelling the battle from the artilleryman's point of view, the author has made a real contribution to our understanding of the reasons for the Confederate failure to crush the Army of the Potomac.

The guns were everywhere in action on all three days of the battle. On the first day, the few horse batteries with General Buford's advance unit played a crucial part in holding up the Confederate advance until Reynolds' corps could

arrive on the field. On the second day, they played a decisive part in filling the gaps in the Union line after General Sickles' ill-judged advance opened dangerous gaps in the Union lines. On the climactic third day it was the failure of the Confederates properly to implace their artillery, or even get many of the guns into action in the preliminary bombardment, that foredoomed Pickett's charge. It is too seldom remembered that the final decision on whether Pickett's charge should be made and when was left to a Colonel Alexander of the Confederate artillery, and the fateful word was given by him, not by General Lee or General Longstreet.

DRURY, MAXINE and J. P. *A Career for Carol*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 222 pp. \$3. Seventeen-year-old Carol Latimer lives with her mother and brother Dennis beside Long Island Sound. She is just finishing high school and her dream is a career in opera. The scholarship her voice and musicianship have won will pay her tuition in a famous music school but leaves nothing over for other expenses. Mrs. Latimer is a night nurse in a nearby hospital and must manage finances well to support the family since her husband was drowned in a storm two years before. She offers to sell their waterfront cottage and move to the city.

Unwilling to accept this sacrifice, Carol finds hope in Dennis' suggestion to try lobstering. They overcome their mother's dread of the sea for them and Dennis contributes the hard-earned dollars he had saved toward a motorcycle. They buy equipment from Roger Green, a new friend about to go into the army. Roger helps them get started but things go wrong. A storm destroys most of their equipment and they discover their traps are being robbed. The search for the thief is suspenseful until his dramatic capture with the help of the Fish and Game Warden.

DRYDEN, CECIL. *Mr. Hunt and the Fabulous Plan*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1958. 343 pp. \$5. When John Jacob Astor, wealthy merchant of New York, announced his plan for the launching of an ambitious trading project in the far-off Columbia River country, people declared it was little short of "fabulous." His scheme included not only barter with the Indians but trade with Russian America and China as well.

The key to the grand design was a monopoly on the furs of the Oregon Country, and this in turn rested upon the control of the Columbia River and the ability of Astor's men to forestall the enterprising Northwest Company fur hunters who were converging on the Oregon Country from the interior.

As the agent for carrying out his all-inclusive scheme, Astor created the Pacific Fur Company, staffing it almost entirely with energetic Scots lured from the rival Canadian group. The fabulous plan called for the "capture" of Oregon by a two-pronged attack, one by land and the other by sea. The sea contingent sailed on the *Tonquin* and arrived safely at the mouth of the Columbia. Here, Fort Astoria, first American trading post in Old Oregon, was built under the supervision of Duncan McDougall, Astor's second in command.

This book offers a dramatic account of how the overland party fared and how the eventual union of the two expeditions was achieved. The first half of the story is dominated by Wilson Price Hunt, Astor's first in command, named to be resident agent on the Columbia. He was a kindly man, loyal and well-intentioned, but one constantly dogged by bad luck, poor judgment, and indecision. And with him marched men who would try the patience of a saint.

The second part of the narrative begins auspiciously with the arrival of a supply ship bringing reinforcements. But war came, and in those perilous times when a strong, decisive voice was needed in council, Wilson Price Hunt was far away from the Columbia—in Alaska—in the South Seas. Time ran out and the fortunes of the Pacific Fur Company waned. Its holdings were sold to the rival Northwesters and the Astor enterprise collapsed—but only after it had served, in part at least, to open the way for the eventual acquisition of the whole vast Oregon Country by the United States.

DUDLEY, L. P., and J. J. SMITH. *The Americana Annual, 1958*. New York 36: Americana Corporation, 2 W. 45th St. 928 pp. (6½" x 10"). This *Annual* supplements *The Americana* which has been overwhelmingly revised in recent years (40% in the last two years alone) and reset in new, larger and far more readable type. More than 400 authorities have contributed signed articles to this year's annual. The index in the *Annual* covers not only the contents of the current edition, but also everything that has appeared in each edition of the *Annual* in the last five years. Suddenly in 1957 with the launching of the first artificial earth satellite by the Soviet Union, earth-bound man entered a new space era. Meanwhile, in a year distinguished for its scientific achievements, an important conquest of the earth itself was under way as sixty-seven nations joined in the greatest coordinated scientific effort ever attempted—the International Geophysical Year. In all parts of the globe, men and women of virtually every scientific discipline begin their intensive study of the earth, its atmosphere and its sun, collecting the data which would not be fully evaluated for years to come.

As the year neared the close, the United States, suddenly aware of a new and foreign moon in its skies, began to take a long hard look at the state of its science, its schools, and its defense structure. This, the 36th edition of the *Annual* is the detailed records of these developments—and many more.

The Economic Almanac 1958. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 432 Fourth Ave. 1958. 673 pp. \$3.75. For teachers and pupils, in the social studies and in other subject areas, here is up-to-date and dependable economic information—in compact, convenient, and inexpensive form. No other one volume supplies so readily and fully the statistical and other current data concerned with vital economic problems.

Answers Your Pupils' Question—and Your Own. What is the population density of your state? How many workers were unemployed a year ago? Two years ago? Ten years ago? How do clerical salary rates compare in large cities throughout the country? The answers to these, and to thousands of similar questions, are at your finger-tips in the 1958 ALMANAC.

New Tables; Revised Tables. For the first time, The Conference Board's own capital appropriations estimates, overtime statistics, income distribution data, and new data on productivity and industrial concentration have been included. All of the nearly 800 tables have been brought up to date where possible. The section on Canada has increased by fifty per cent.

EDWARDS, A. L. *Statistical Analysis*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 232 Madison Ave. 1958. 248 pp. \$4. The author believes that his textbook should help pupils gain an understanding of statistical theory and how statistical methods can be used to obtain answers to questions within his own subject matter specialty. He holds that it is not the function of this course in statistics to train computers and machine operators. Students can later learn machine

techniques of calculation, as the need arises. He presents elementary statistical theory in a way that will be intuitively meaningful to the nonmathematically trained student.

His workbook (87 pages, \$1.25) is designed to accompany the text. The material in each chapter of the workbook is designed to provide a review of the corresponding chapter of the textbook.

EISMAN, LOUIS, and CHARLES TANZER. *Biology and Human Progress*, second edition. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 560 pp. \$4.80. This is a general biology text. As such, it places greatest emphasis on problems of major concern to students. The factual basis is ample, but non-functional materials and little-used technical terminology have been eliminated. Motivation is stressed; the chief objective is to show each student how he can use his knowledge of biology to better himself and the world in which he lives.

The original edition was based on the classroom experiences of hundreds of teachers. The recommendations of these teachers have also played a major part in its revision. The text material has been increased by approximately 20 per cent. Several sections have been completely rewritten, and many illustrations have been redrawn or replaced.

The features designed for convenient and efficient planning have been retained. These include: highly flexible organization; readily assignable questions keyed to the text; projects and experiments to integrate activity with reading; and extensive supplementary teaching aids. All of these have been tested in the classroom.

This book is divided into ten large units, each of which is constructed around one important central idea. Within the unit, the chief topics are presented as separate problems.

Facts About NATO. Paris, France: The North Atlantic Treaty Organization, Palais de Chaillot. 1958. 211 pp. (11 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ "). This publication contains a wealth of information about NATO and related subjects, giving detailed and up-to-date facts concerning the Atlantic Alliance. The material is divided into three main sections: Section A, containing general information on the history of NATO, its present structure and its achievements; Section B, describing in a more detailed way certain aspects of NATO's work; and Section C, containing miscellaneous items and a number of questions about NATO which are frequently asked, and answers. In the typographical presentation of this book, matter of fundamental importance is printed in large letters while the more detailed information is printed in small letters. Essential points are emphasized by bold type. Marginal notes accompany the text in order to facilitate quick reference to a particular topic. The book is presented in loose-leaf form so that it can be constantly kept up to date by supplementary pages furnished by NATO Information Service whenever new or additional data become available.

FADIMAN, CLIFTON, editor. *Fantasia Mathematica*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Ave. 1958. 319 pp. \$4.95. In this book, you will learn what happens when a young man chases his fiancée right into the fourth dimension . . . and how a distinguished professor disappeared during a demonstration and fell headlong into a dancer's act . . . and how a portion of Boston's underground system once vanished from the face of the earth—or was it the bowels? . . . and how long it would take to walk past all

the books that could possibly be written . . . and how six monkeys might have written all those books if they hadn't been stopped . . . and even how universal socialism may be attained through a simple problem in sixth-grade arithmetic.

And that is by no means all. Besides these lighthearted tales, there are engaging little poems, and—just once in a while—a profoundly moving piece of literature such as Aldous Huxley's story of the Italian peasant boy who might have become a mathematical genius.

FAST, HOWARD. *Moses, Prince of Egypt*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc., 419 Fourth Ave. 1958. 315 pp. \$3.95. In a novel stunning in its impact and inspiration, the author has portrayed magnificently the little-known early years of one of history's great figures. From the moment when the young Prince of Egypt stands before Ramses II, god-king of all Egypt, the reader is swept into the world of the foremost power of the day. In this world young Moses was one apart: the doubly-royal son of Ramses and his sister, he was openly spoken of as the Prince of Egypt; yet if stories about him were true, he was lower-born than the commonest palace slave.

The author's Moses is an enormously appealing young man—at one moment arrogant, at the next bewildered by things he does not understand: the attractions and strains between himself and other young men and women, the scheming of court politics, the prohibition in polytheistic Egypt against worshipping the one God, Aton. As Moses grows toward manhood, his way is that of a stranger, a wanderer seeking to find his identity.

The author invests Moses' search with scope and drama. In the pages of this engrossing novel appear a wealth of towering creations—the Bedouin slave, Nun, tamed from a snarling animal on the block to become Moses' companion in battle and eventual spokesman for the Levites, Nun's people; Moses' teachers who prepare him for his great role in history: the priest Amontep, who believes in Aton at the risk of his life, and Ramses' engineer, the bitter and brilliant Neph, whose heart is won by the young prince. There are unforgettable scenes—the turbulent battle against the black men of Kush; the Utopian idyll in the lush lands at the source of the Nile; Moses' youthful love in the white house by the First Cataract.

FEIFFER, J. *Sick, Sick, Sick*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. Unpagd. This is a book of cartoons which have appeared in *The Village Voice*.

FERBER, EDNA. *Ice Palace*. New York 22: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 575 Madison Ave. 1958. 411 pp. \$4.50. Edna Ferber has summoned up all her vast natural resources as a superior novelist to depict today's Alaska. Here are the Territory's modern vigorous people, its dramatic weather and scenery, its desperate, still-unfinished struggle for statehood. And here, too, are the men from "The Outside" determined to exploit a fabulously rich Alaska for their own gains.

This is a angry novel, telling of the fifty-year battle between two titans trying to dominate Alaska's future. And this is the story of their lovely young granddaughter, Christine Storm, who had to choose between two younger titans—a choice that stood, in a way, for Alaska's future.

The characters in this book are all as strong, as boldly drawn as the towering mountains that surround them. The novel's vital theme of a proud land's virile insistence on the dignity of independence is as forceful as the invigorating air its people breathe.

FIRTH, RAYMOND. *Human Types*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 180 pp. 50¢. An introduction to social anthropology, illustrated with photographs and line drawings. A Mentor book.

FOX; WILLIAM. *Rocks and Rain and the Rays of the Sun*. New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc. 1958. 90 pp. \$3. Nature has the oldest factory there is. The raw material it uses is rock. The workers are raindrops and the rays of the sun. The shop is all of the land in the world, and the product is soil. The author tells here the fascinating story of how this "factory" works.

Farm crops, forests, grassland, minerals and oil and the ocean are dependent on the sun and rain and soil. The author, in explaining how and why, answers the many questions about nature that young readers ask.

FRANKEL, LILLIAN and GODFREY. *Scrapbook of Real-Life Stories for Young People*. New York 10: Sterling Publishing Co., Inc., 215 East 37th St. 1958. 224 pp. \$3.50. Every day hundreds of newspapers carry wonderful stories of current adventures in living. How often have you wished that you had clipped and put into a scrapbook all the articles you wanted to re-read and remember? These stories have a way of disappearing into the oblivion of newspaper files or trash cans.

The editors of this book have done the job for you. They have combed the daily newspapers and clipping "morgues" throughout the country to revive those stories which refuse to stay buried. They have selected from the nation's leading newspapers over 100 of the most important stories, adventures, activities and ideas of our time, written by the world's best reporters.

FREEMAN, O. W., and J. W. MORRIS. *World Geography*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 631 pp. \$10.75. This book is planned to give college and university students information about nations and continents to help them in their understanding of world affairs and the applications of geography in general. The study of familiar geographic areas has been chosen as the primary approach to world geography because it is believed that this organization will help the students learn and remember essential facts and basic principles. The book proceeds, after a general introductory chapter, from areas close at hand to those more distant. Part One, the Western Hemisphere, includes (in order) the United States, Canada, Middle America, and South America. Part Two, the Eastern Hemisphere, is divided into areas selected for convenience and location. Each chapter describes a region which has unity, although the factors which account for this are not always the same. The detail in which an area is studied depends upon its relative in world affairs. Some continents, such as South America and Australia, are considered as a whole, but others, like Europe and North America, are divided into groups of related countries and studied in more detail. Because of the need for much greater knowledge of the United States, three chapters have been devoted to the study of the home country.

Throughout the text human activities are related to the earth's relief features, climatic regions, and natural resources—soils, vegetation, supplies of water, and mineral deposits. After studying the physical environment, each area description considers significant aspects of the cultural environment such as cities, industries, and other economic and cultural activities.

The text is intended to meet several needs. One is a survey of the countries and areas of the world to be included in the general education curriculum,

especially where such a course is the only one the student will take. Another is a second following that on principles of geography. Institutions which offer two terms of geography, one on the Eastern Hemisphere and the other on the Western Hemisphere, will find the volume adapted to their requirements. The book will also serve as a text for courses in world regional geography.

Geography has many words or terms which are not commonly used. In general, such words or phrases are defined when first used in the text. To supplement these definitions, and to aid in understanding many of the more common terms, a glossary has been added at the close of the book.

GARRETT, JAMES. *And Save Them for Pallbearers*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 W. 40th St. 1958. 320 pp. \$3.95. Peter Donatti, Staff Sergeant, U.S.A., was a man outwardly like many men but as unique as every man. He could not escape what a thousand individual experiences had made him. Even in the grip of the two most powerful forces known to human beings—love and war—those thousand experiences became one compulsion to drive him on to the end he had unconsciously sought throughout his life.

Donatti left the Italian slums in Detroit, where he was born and raised, to work his way through college. He left college to enlist. He left Marcia Voigt, the first woman he had ever loved, to escape the truth about her. During the weeks of brutal fighting at the front, Donatti found a strange fulfillment in the comradeship of men who faced death together. But then he was badly wounded and sent to a Paris hospital, where he fell in love again—with his nurse, Lt. Abigail Winslow. Not even his overwhelming love for Abby or her passionate love for him could save him. Declared unfit for active duty and ordered home, where Abby was to join him, Donatti did not go home. He returned to the front.

GENDRON, VAL. *Behind the Zuni Masks*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 220 pp. \$3. When Charlie Nickerson, Boy Scout and confirmed Yankee from Cape Cod, came to La Junta, Colorado, where his family was to live, he believed he was leaving behind him everything that made life interesting and exciting. He meets Buck, the leader of the Boy Scout Troop. He discovers the Kiva, or Indian House, of the Koshare Scout Troop, and a whole new world opened up to him—the world of Indian lore and handicrafts and dances. Koshares, he found, were Explorer Scouts whose project was to make known and to appreciate the culture of the southwest Indians throughout the country. They put on shows which were of professional caliber, using the money they so earned to develop their Kiva and perfect their skill. Charlie becomes an ardent participant and finally, after his election to the Troop as a brave, one of the outstanding performers in the shows and a teacher of the Indian dances to the other Scouts. In their enthusiasm and quite unaware of offense, the boys prevail upon their sponsor to let them dance the beautiful Shalako of the Zunis. This lands them in a heap of trouble, for the Zunis protest, resenting this use of their sacred dance as a show. In a stirring climax there is a meeting between the Koshares and the Zuni representatives and restitution is made to the Indians.

GEREN, PAUL. *New Voices, Old Worlds*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 174 pp. \$2.95. The author tells the true stories of a number of persons whose experiences reflect the full range of the position of Christians in the part of the world where their faith originated. The most notable individual whose biography is told is Charles Malik, the mathematics

teacher from Lebanon who has become one of the world's most respected statesmen. A contrasting figure is that of Mansur Sang, the fearless, footloose Iranian whose zeal for Christ overcame every hardship and danger.

No book dealing with this theme would be complete without accounts of such men as William Shedd, who gave his life while protecting Nestorian and Armenian Christians from persecution, and John Van Ess, the indefatigable student of Arab life who himself was an educator of significant attainments. Among the women who people this book is the remarkable Halana Mikhiei, the friend of the Egyptian villager and the bringer of light in terms of literacy. Such individuals, fifteen in all, are to be met in this book.

GODDEN, RUMER. *The Greengage Summer*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Ave. 1958. 218 pp. \$3.50. This novel concerns a family of five English children thrown on their own for part of a summer in a little town on the Marne. Unwelcome at the *pension* where they have been stranded, they are forced to develop a secret life of their own, and they do so with all the cunning of childhood. Meanwhile they watch with knowing eyes the comings and goings of the older people—including a mysterious and charming Englishman who befriends them and finds delightful ways to entertain them. The eldest girl, sixteen, is just blossoming into a beauty, and her effect on the adults involves the whole group in a plot that is unfolded with the ingenuity and suspense of a mystery story. To say more would be to give away the secret that the children suspect—and that is the heart of the matter.

GRAMBS, J. D.; W. J. IVERSON; and F. K. PATTERSON. *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*, revised edition. New York 19: The Dryden Press, Inc., 31 W. 54th St. 1958. 716 pp. \$5.90. We can be sure that exacting experimentation will strengthen the curriculum, reaffirming, modifying, rejecting both old and new content; we have only to yield some of our reluctance to put conviction to the test. We can gain reassurance on this point if we look at what has happened to methods of teaching. During these years of phenomenal growth in the high school, ways of instruction have changed markedly. At one time high school teaching relied almost exclusively on lectures. Today a great variety of methods are in use, developed from the new insights provided by research. As the heterogeneity of the high school population has increased, this willingness to experiment with new ways of teaching has served secondary education well.

This revised edition, like the first edition, is intended to furnish the practical details of these "modern methods." The authors have been careful to place "methods" in perspective. They fully recognize that competence in teaching requires the "know what" of academic scholarship and the "know why" of sound values and purposes in proper balance with the "know how" of effective methodology.

They realize now more clearly than ever before how crucial it is to go beyond telling a beginning teacher what he ought to do. They have set for themselves the inviolable rule that unless they can show the young teacher quite concretely "how to do it" they should not even suggest an approach. Nor have they tried to gloss over the hard realities. The ideal teaching situation is still some distance away in most American high schools, and they have not tried to pretend otherwise. At the same time they can offer the reassurance that every method of teaching described in this volume has been used successfully by beginning teachers in high schools of all sizes and in a great variety of communities.

In this second edition they have benefited from the generous advice of the users of the first edition. Much material has been added in response to such suggestions: three entirely new chapters begin the book, and the rest have been extensively revised; many have been completely rewritten. At the same time they have been careful to preserve the strengths of the old edition, particularly the explicit "how-to-do-it" discussions.

GRUBBS, R. L., and J. L. WHITE. *Sustained Timed Writings*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., Gregg Publishing Division, 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. 96 pp. \$1.56. The main purpose of this book is to provide the best possible material for a systematic program for reaching high levels of skill. When used with the plans outlined within, the book becomes a whole "course" in basic speed and accuracy. The authors suggest several plans because any continuous skill-building program requires variety just to keep interest bright, effort full, and progress rapid.

GRUENBERG, S. M. *The Parents' Guide to Everyday Problems of Boys and Girls*. New York 22: Random House, Inc., 457 Madison Ave. 1958. 379 pp. \$4.95. Your role as a parent is both important and demanding, and this useful handbook can help you in two ways: first, as an authoritative reference book to turn to when a problem arises during the formative years from five to twelve, and second, as an easy-to-read survey of everything you ought to know about your own and your friends' school-age youngsters.

Reading this book will help you to understand better and more fully what goes on in your children's growing minds; show you what to do in nearly every situation that is likely to occur at home, at school or at play; and give you added confidence and pleasure in your family relationships.

HARRINGTON, JANETTE T. *The Shadows They Cast*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 175 pp. \$2.95. They come from the North American neighborhood, a vast expanse that arches across the globe from Alaska to the Caribbean and from Montreal to Hawaii. In their lives are reflected the longings and the wounds of countless people. In their hearts beats the love that bids them serve their fellows in the name of Jesus Christ. They are a courageous company; witness Senator Hipolito Marcano, champion of religious liberty in Puerto Rico. They are harbingers of hope; witness Mary Harootian in Haiti.

Alfonso Rodriguez' story is the tale of what was almost a miracle, both in medical science and in human perseverance. Virginia Boardman is "the medicine lady" to nine hundred Navahos. Ichiro Okada inspires his fellow Hawaiian Christians with what a layman can do for the church. Estelle Martin, a "grandmother type", raises the spirits of Alaskans with what can be done for the lonely. There are many more in this book of modern-day disciples.

HARRISON, ANN. *A Tool in His Hand*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 174 pp. \$2.75. The journey from Nebraska to inland Arabia was half a world long, and the journey from frail boyhood to a manhood of physical, mental, and spiritual vigor was even more arduous. But Paul Harrison, son of a devoted minister in the American Midwest, made both.

The saga of the mission doctor whose life and work have been so closely identified with the land of his labors that he is widely known as "Harrison of Arabia" is told in this book by the person who knows him best, his wife. It is not the story of one man alone, however, but the tale of a great mission enterprise and an area in process of rebirth.

Paul Harrison was one of a small group of young men and women who went to the Persian Gulf area of the Arabian peninsula at the time the late Ibn Saud, father of the present ruler of Saudi Arabia, who was becoming the leader among the Arab tribes. They went to serve and to proclaim the gospel of Jesus but found their way blocked by a wall of prejudice and misunderstanding. Inland Arabia was forbidden territory to the missionaries.

HARRISON, E. J. *Junior Judo*. New York 10: Sterling Publishing Co., Inc., 121 East 24th Street. 1958. 144 pp. \$1.50. One of the first times the advantages of knowing Judo became obvious to the Western World was when Prince Francis I of France threw the robust, athletic Henry VIII, King of England, in an extemporaneous bout back in 1520. Francis knew Judo techniques and Henry, who did not, landed flat on his back.

Since that day, many English and American small boys and men (of course the Japanese, too) have outdone much larger opponents, simply through knowledge of balance, weight distribution, holds—all the Judo tricks.

The leading teacher of Judo in the West today, the author, has reached the rank of Fourth Dan, highest that any white man holds. Here he explains in easy-to-understand language, illustrated with extremely clear diagrams, the positions, holds, throws, locks, bends and twists which are most useful and not harmful for young people.

HILL, T. H. W. *Mathematics for the Layman*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 15 East 40th St. 1958. 343 pp. \$4.75. "Mathematics means nothing to me—I have no head for figures!" Behind this common protest lies the notion that mathematicians are a race apart, who, if they do not actually practice black magic, come very near it!

Are we all so deficient in mathematical knowledge as we think we are? Actually, mathematics is a tool we use every day to bring order into our lives—whether we are paying a bill or pursuing a do-it-yourself hobby.

Here is a book that will not only increase your efficiency with figures, but show you how mathematics developed over the centuries, through painstaking experiment and lucky inspiration, to give us the system without which our world today could not operate.

Though it is not a textbook, packed with problems, there are enough simple exercises to increase your self-confidence and enough exciting information to convince you that mathematics is not a closed book, but a world of tremendous value and endless fascination, open to all.

HOOK, J. N. *How To Take Examinations in College*. New York: Barnes and Noble, 105 Fifth Ave. 1958. 188 pp. \$1.25. This book provides information on how to prepare for and work with the various types of examinations in college. It contains many examples of the kinds of questions that college students may encounter in almost any course. There are sample questions from college entrance examinations as a part of a useful supplement for prospective college students.

HOOVER, HERBERT. *The Ordeal of Woodrow Wilson*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1958. 334 pp. \$6. The tragedy of World War I brought Herbert Hoover and Woodrow Wilson close together. Out of that relationship between the President and the man who was to become President has come this remarkable book.

As head of the Belgian Relief, as Food Administrator of the United States, as member of the President's American War Council, Mr. Hoover worked

directly with Mr. Wilson during the war years. As director of the Relief and Reconstruction of Europe and as a member of the President's Economic Advisory Council in Paris, Mr. Hoover had intimate knowledge of Mr. Wilson's efforts to achieve a just and lasting peace. It is on the period between 1915 and 1921 that this book concentrates.

The author illumines this story of glorious failure with the sure knowledge of one who was both observer and participant and with the deep understanding of one who later himself, assumed the heavy burdens of the Presidency in a time of crisis.

From the high hopes Mr. Wilson had for a better world to their utter disillusionment, the book moves with the pace of a Greek tragedy. It shows Mr. Wilson's swift rise to intellectual domination of the world. It details his triumphs as he imposed the "Fourteen Points" as a basis for peace on the defeated enemy and the Allied Nations as well. But even as the war-weary peoples of Europe hailed him as a new redeemer, their politicians were striving to dilute the "Fourteen Points" and to thwart their sponsor. Here the author discloses how the idealism of the New World ran head-on into the cynicism of the Old World.

This story portrays the President's striving to give the world a good and just peace. When, in Paris, he found this impossible, he fought not only to set up the League of Nations, but to make it part of the treaties so that it might later remedy the inequities and injustices of the peace. The author tells of the opposition that arose to the Treaty and to the League at home, how Mr. Wilson set out so gallantly on his crusade to save them and was stricken in Colorado. During his long illness the fight to ratify the Treaty and the League was lost in the Senate—completing the tragedy.

HOPKINS, J. A., and D. A. TURNER. *Records for Farm Management*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 232 pp. The purposes of this book is to present a simple system of keeping and analyzing farm records. The methods described are those of single-entry accounting such as are used on thousands of family-sized farms in the United States.

Emphasis is placed on processes for analyzing and solving problems which the farmer runs into from day to day in the course of his business. In other words, farm accounting is conceived of as a practical tool in farm management rather than as a subject studied apart from other aspects of agriculture.

Reduced to their bare essentials, farm accounting methods are not highly complex. But they must be closely geared to management decisions. By using them, the farmer can measure his success or failure and can find where his enterprises failed and where they can be improved.

To permit such an analysis, the records must bring together many facts on physical performance, such as yields of crops and gains on livestock, as well as data on dollars received and expended. It is not, however, necessary to apply the more laborious methods of cost accounting, as will be shown in due course.

HUGHES, LANGSTON. *Famous Negro Heroes of America*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co., 432 Fourth Ave. 1958. 203 pp. \$3. From the early sixteenth century to modern times, Negroes, both men and women, have made heroic contributions to the history and culture of the United States.

The author presents a gallery of sixteen biographies of these outstanding figures in our country's past and present. They include explorers, pioneers,

warriors, Abolitionists, seamen and an air ace. Among these names inscribed on the pages of American history are Esteban, discoverer of what is now Arizona; Crispus Attucks, the first man to fall in the Revolution; Harriet Tubman and Frederick Douglass, fighters for the freedom of their people from slavery; Matt Henson, the first man to stand on the North Pole; Captain Hugh Malzac, first Negro captain in the U. S. Merchant Marine; and Brig. Gen. Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., contemporary military aviation ace.

HUTCHINS, R. E. *Strange Plants and Their Ways*. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Co., P. O. Box 7600. 1958. 96 pp. (7" x 10"). \$2.95. Cannibal plants that trap and devour insects—vampire plants that draw their nourishment from other plants—the curious slime mold that changes overnight from a low form of animal life to a plant—these are just a few of the strange and unusual kinds of plant life described and pictured in this fascinating book.

In this book the author opens up another exciting world for boys and girls to explore. For in addition to describing unusual kinds of plants, he shows how even the most common plants are examples of the marvelous processes of nature.

He tells about the almost miraculous way in which plants manufacture sugar and starch with the aid of chlorophyll and sunlight—a feat no scientist has been able to equal. He shows, too, the endlessly fascinating devices Nature has developed for pollinating and for scattering the seeds of plants.

JAFFE, BERNARD. *Chemical Calculations*, third edition. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 313 Park Hill Ave. 1958. 192 pp. \$2.20. Chemistry teachers today—and their students—are in a good position to profit by this little book on chemical calculations, which has just been revised and brought up to date. The red carpet is out for future scientists, and a more liberal policy in textbook appropriations should insure more and better aids to teaching them. Here is one way of reinforcing the beginning instruction in chemistry. Planned to supplement the regular class textbook, it is intended to overcome the shortcomings in mathematics training that are found in so many of the students who elect chemistry. As the author says in the preface: "Through problem solving, chemistry becomes an exact science to the student, since he soon realizes that quantitative data are fundamental and that even the smallest particles of matter in their reactions obey mathematical laws."

The book contains 1,000 problems arranged progressively according to lesson assignments and presented in three parts. Part I, dealing with the ten types of problem considered basic to all chemical calculations, is, in the author's opinion, important to every student of chemistry. Part II offers more advanced computation for the superior high school student or the first-year college student. In Part III are additional problems based on lesson assignments, with the principal equations under each topic.

Two sections are provided to help students prepare for college entrance examinations. In this new edition, "Typical Questions from College Entrance Examination Board Tests" are selected from the latest publication of the C.E.E.B. Similarly, "Chemical Problems from New York State Regents Examination Papers" include questions from 1957 tests.

JAHN, RAYMOND. *Concise Dictionary of Holidays*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1958. 110 pp. \$5. Whenever a significant number of people anywhere choose to remember a person, an event,

a birth or death, a special day is set aside. By such memorials we keep track of our history, our principles, our very humanity.

This is a dictionary of such days—of holidays and holy days, feasts and fasts, birthdays and anniversaries. It includes the principal holidays of all major faiths—Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant—state days of all the American states—and the national holidays of most countries, Oriental as well as Western.

JAMES, H. C. *Red Man—White Man*. San Antonio 6, Texas: Naylor Co., 918 N. St. Mary's St. 1958. 286 pp. \$5. The author has delved deeply into the Hopi culture to produce a book which, with great feeling, explains tribal lore and customs.

Opened for the reader is a searching diagnosis of the Hopi life on a reservation. This innate dignity is revealed as is his genuinely wonderful sense of humor.

Mr. James has laid bare the machinations of the unscrupulous "white" who, in the not too distant past, sought to exploit the Indian, adding another ignominious chapter to the dealings of the newly-arrived settler with America's only original citizens.

Also examined with a penetrating insight are the often inhumane treatments meted out by pseudo-religious individuals in their "bringing of Christianity" to the reservation. This approach contrasts starkly to the genuine missionaries who dealt with the Hopi and other tribes.

In his dedication, Mr. James pays tribute to the traditional leaders of the Hopi and cites their "stubborn integrity," crediting it with the preservation of their people. This integrity shows itself on every page of the book.

Red Man—White Man deals not with the Hopi at a time when the Red Man and the White Man fought openly on the frontiers of America, but at a time when World War One was a most recent memory.

The story of an Indian returning to his reservation, his people and the tribal way of life is stirringly told. Jim Telastewa, back from a tour of duty with the Navy, was faced with a tremendous decision: Was he to be a Red Man in a White Man's world, or, after having tasted the delicious, heady wine of complete freedom in a modern world, was he to return to the *kiva*, the mud hogan, there to live out his life.

How he solved his problem is a gripping story.

JAMES, N. W. *Young Doctor of New Amsterdam*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 221 pp. \$3. Pieter Le Mont had just returned to New Amsterdam after his medical studies in Holland, expecting to work for the Dutch West India Company until he qualifies for his medical degree. A foundling, the Dutch had ransomed him from the Indians years before, but the young man is at a disadvantage, since family background was important in the mid-seventeenth century. On a chain about his neck was a handsome medallion—the only possible clue to his heritage. However, Pieter hopes to overcome his handicap by his own endeavors.

An early run-in with Governor Stuyvesant ruins Pieter's chances of finding work in the city and his search for employment takes him up the North River to Blauw Haeven. From there he is sent farther north on a two-fold mission for its wealthy mistress—to find news of her long-missing son Cornelis, and to restore the fur trading with the Iroquois Indians. After a narrow escape from a besieged French mission-fort Pieter returns with his quest unfulfilled and is angrily dismissed by the dowager mistress of Blauw Haeven.

Back in New Amsterdam he works for a Portuguese importer during the day and assists an overworked doctor evenings. His medical degree finally won, he hears rumors that Kerraen, the girl he hoped to make his wife, is to marry the Patroon Michiel Van Blauw. An Indian massacre, a serious epidemic in which his services are needed, and rumors that England plans to capture the Dutch colony, delay his trip upriver to see her. Later, when she is carried off by treacherous Indians his pursuit of her abductors leads Pieter to the northern Indians again, and eventually to the discovery of his parentage.

JENKINS, SARA. *The Young People of the Bible*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 W. 32nd St. 1958. 224 pp. \$3.95. The Christ child, Joseph and Benjamin, Salome, Abijah, Esther, Samuel and Saul—all the young people of the Bible are here: the children, the adolescents, the youths coming into young manhood and young womanhood. The baby Moses drifting by the water's edge where Pharaoh's daughter discovered him in his ark of bulrushes; Dinah captivating the Hivite Schechem with her beauty; David enlisting in Saul's service, girding himself to meet Goliath; Jephthah's daughter rushing happily, eager to greet her father first—all of them are here as we meet them in the Bible.

There have been hundreds of Bible story books for young children but this book aims at something rather different. At a time when we are all intensely aware of the problems which confront our own youth, the author had demonstrated the elemental spirit and heroism of the young people who lived in those long-ago days. In addition to the ageless tales she has collected, her expansive comments and discussions of each saga give the book scope and a quality that is both enlightening and entertaining.

Here is an exceedingly stimulating volume for mature readers. With stories drawn from both the Old and New Testaments and from secular sources, Mohammedan and old Jewish legends about the young people whose biographies are recounted—all the major characters of the Bible have been covered.

JENNINGS, JOHN. *The Tall Ships*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 300 pp. \$3.95. Home for young Ben Forbes is the fabled, fiery eastern shore of Maryland, noted for its beautiful women and gracious plantation life. For Ben, the pleasant flow of life is suddenly interrupted when his small sailboat is accidentally run down by a cutter, the *Oriole*. In this brief encounter Ben meets the woman destined to play a major part in his life: flaxen-haired, lilting-voiced Kirstie Von Lund. Only hours after this meeting he is shipwrecked with Nancy Savage, his companion since childhood. Forced to spend the night together on a desolate island, Ben and Nancy become the center of a scandal that rocks the whole of Maryland. Nancy is dishonored, and Ben, after fighting a series of duels, is forced to an abrupt departure for the Continental Navy.

Commissioned as a lieutenant, Ben sees naval action for the first time aboard the famous *Chesapeake* in its historic fight with the British man-of-war the *Leopard*. Unprepared for the wanton attack by the British ship, the *Chesapeake* is severely damaged and Ben is badly wounded. Mustered out of the service as unfit for active duty, Ben's only recourse to engage in further action is to join the powerful, privately owned and armed band of privateers known as "The Tall Ships." It is on one of the privateers, the *Chasseur*, captained by the astonishing and legendary Captain Boyle, that Ben wins for himself honor as a sailor and stature as a man.

JEWETT, ARNO; A. H. LASS, and MARGARET EARLY. *Literature for Life*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street. 1958. 736 pp. \$4.20. This book is attractively designed and illustrated with many pictures in color. The text is divided into nine units and the modern classic, *Johnny Tremain* by Esther Forbes. The nine units are composed of prose with some poetry. Unit 1 has eight prose selections classified under "Suspense." Unit 2 is entitled "The Funny Side"; Unit 3, "Family Life"; Unit 4, "Our Fascinating World"; Unit 6, "People Are Important"; Unit 7, "The World of Work"; Unit 8, "What Men Live By"; and Unit 9, "Treasures from Our Heritage." Each story is introduced by a "Before You Read" and a "Reading Guide" as aid to the reader. Also included are information about the author and at the end questions about the story and a section on "Words and Their Uses."

JOHNSON, R. P. *Middle East Pilgrimage*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 186 pp. \$2.95. To the Westerner driving through the desert, the scene was timeless. A Bedouin camp under sweeping skies, around it a scattering of camels and donkeys. A small, lonely, ragged boy watching by the roadside. This was the unchanging Middle East.

But then, as the traveler passed, the lad's face moved and between pursed lips grew a pink balloon of bubble gum.

The Western traveler was the author, and he has never forgotten the incident. The contrast symbolizes for him the ferment in an area of the world where people are stirring, where new ideas are burning, where old bonds are bursting. In the lands where pilgrims are a commonplace, there is a new pilgrimage. The peoples of the Middle East are looking for a new way of life.

Where will they find it? Which direction will they take? Whom will they follow? How fast will they go? How will the rest of the world be affected by what they do? These are the questions that are important to anyone concerned about the Middle East, and the author discusses them with wisdom and familiarity.

JOSEPH, MARGARET, and MILDRED KEIFFER. *Basic General Mathematics*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958 464 pp. \$3.52. This book provides a sound course in general mathematics for secondary school pupils who do not wish to study a traditional course in algebra or who wish to defer such a study until a more solid foundation in arithmetic and general mathematics has been established. To meet their needs, the book offers basic instruction adapted to their level of maturity and interest.

The introduction to each chapter supplies background information concerning the topics to be studied. Pupils learn the special vocabulary involved before they are asked to answer questions and solve problems based on the new material. Because interest in the study of mathematics and the learning of mathematics depend upon an understanding both of mathematical principles and the social settings in which they are useful, students should find particularly helpful the explanation of the way we operate with our system of numbers and how we make use of its decimal and positional characteristics in everyday computation.

Basic General Mathematics includes many types of exercises. Some are designed for class discussion and serve to provide a background for the special applications that follow; others supply specific practice in the kind of written or mental computation needed; still others are specially designed to teach pupils how to select pertinent facts, how to judge whether a result is reason-

able, or how to estimate. The Chapter Reviews help teacher and pupil to find out how well the chapter material was understood. The Cumulative Review Tests provide for a regular renewal of past skills and keep applications fresh in the minds of the pupils. Finally, in addition to the regular exercises, each chapter contains a set of "Recreations"—for stimulation and fun.

KAMERMAN, S. E., editor. *A Treasury of Christmas Plays*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St. 1958. 519 pp. \$5. There is no holiday in the year more widely celebrated with dramatic productions than Christmas. This is understandable because the story and spirit of Christmas have all of the essentials of good drama: memorable characters, absorbing narrative and strong emotional appeal.

Whether the plays are re-enactments of the traditional Christmas Story or modern plays in contemporary settings conveying the message and meaning of Christmas—they should be dramatically effective and satisfying to actors and audiences.

The forty one-act plays in this book meet all of these standards. They include entertaining comedies, legends and fantasies, plays with musical backgrounds, and new adaptations of the traditional Christmas Story. There is a rich variety in content and form, but all of the plays impart the essence of Christmas in a heart-warming and compelling way.

The plays in this collection are all royalty-free and are suitable for young people from lower grades through junior and senior high school. Many of the plays have flexible casts, easily adaptable to large or small groups. This book includes Christmas plays of high quality for classroom, assembly, dramatic club, and church programs—plays that young actors and their audiences will welcome warmly.

KAY, HELEN. *Lincoln: A Big Man*. New York 22: Hastings House, 41 East 50th St. 1958. 45 pp. \$2.75. Lincoln was a big man in many ways: he was tall and the stovepipe hat he wore made him seem taller. His hands were big and so were his feet. The children of his day loved these features and loved him, and so will modern children, for the author has woven actual incidents into a narrative of Lincoln as a young man, a lawyer, a circuit rider, a debater with Stephen Douglas on the great issues of the day, and finally as President-elect of the United States. She shows what a big man he was—physically and finally spiritually, too. This is a picture of Lincoln told so that children will appreciate his many-sided greatness.

KEMP, LT. CMDR. P. K. *Key to Victory*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co., 34 Beacon St. 1957. 382 pp. \$6. Here in a single volume, illustrated with photographs and maps, is the whole far-flung and dramatic story of British sea power and the decisive part it played in World War II. The author, as head of the Admiralty's Historical Section and archivist of the Admiralty Library, has had access to the official documents of war, both British and German, so that for the first time the full story of the six years of British naval activity, from 1939 to 1945, can be told.

In his Foreword to this book the author says: "Wisely, in my opinion, the writer here has aimed to give the reader a broad and comprehensive picture of events and strategy, pausing now and again to describe more fully the actions and episodes of outstanding importance which illustrate the central strategic theme." Thus, the author examines the over-all role of the Air Force, used for the first time as a significant weapon in World War II, and describes

individual events of the war, such as the Matapan victory over the Italian fleet, so vividly that one has a real sense of being on hand.

KENOYER, NATLEE, and RUTHERFORD MONTGOMERY. *A Horae for Claudia and Dennis*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th St. 1958. 160 pp. \$3. Both Claudia, celebrating her twelfth birthday, and Dennis, two years older, had been working and saving to buy a horse, and their Uncle Tom, who knew all about horses, had promised to help them find one—when they moved to their new home and when they had saved enough.

On the big day the two were up early, and Uncle Tom could not arrive fast enough to suit them. Even before a horse was selected, though, Uncle Tom showed them there were things to do and to learn . . . so the work and the fun began with the making of a stable out of an old shed. Then came the hunt for a horse, and ever after they knew how lucky they were to find Blaze—with Uncle Tom's advice and help. Once they owned Blaze their lives were completely changed, busy, and full of excitement and adventure.

KER, W. P. *The Dark Ages*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 240 pp. 50¢. A history of medieval literature from the heroic sagas of Iceland to the love songs of Provence.

KNIES, DONALD. *Walk the Wide World*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co., 432 Fourth Ave. 1958. 302 pp. \$4. In his two-year hitchhike around the world, the author traveled over 80,000 miles and visited forty-eight countries, living on less than fifty dollars a month. Hitchhiking was appealing to him as well as to his billfold: "I enjoyed starting out in the morning not knowing where I would be that night, whom I might meet or what I could learn along the way." He hitched some 2,000 rides in an amazing variety of conveyances, from freight trains to camels, sampans, sports cars, trucks, motorcycles and bullock carts and pedicabs.

On each of the nearly 800 nights of his journey, the author managed to put his sleeping bag down somewhere: in fields, barns, army barracks, libraries and monasteries—on airfields, ship decks, schoolroom desks and the baggage rack of a crowded Indian train—under trucks—in Hindu temples, police stations, youth hostels and London's St. James Park—inside small palaces and roadside mud huts.

People, the author found, are the biggest attraction of each country, and a traveler who comes on foot with a pack on his back brings out the best in them. When the bearded, twenty-five-year-old American was invariably taken home to eat and sleep, he gained an insight into how rich and poor alike live and what they believe and feel, as no other kind of traveler can. "To some the Brotherhood of Man may be faded cliché, he concludes, "but to me it is a vivid reality."

KOSLOW, JULES. *The Kremlin*. New York 17: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 19 East 47th St. 1958. 252 pp. \$5. Part fortress, part palace, and part cathedral, the Moscow Kremlin has come over the centuries to symbolize the spirit of Russia itself. Although it is the finest expression of the splendors of Russia's great Byzantine heritage, it also stands for the mystery, terror, brutality and lust which have given the Russians their reputation for barbarism.

The long history of the identification of the Kremlin with terror begins early—with its construction as a small fortress under the power of Genghis

Khan—and continues until today. Ivan the Terrible, for instance, was instructed in cruelty by his own father—taken for long visits to the torture chambers and taught to throw dogs from the towers of the Kremlin to see them splatter. Both he and Peter the Great lived to crown their violent reigns with the murders of their sons and heirs. Peter himself as a child was dragged through the blood of his slaughtered relatives and friends and took a terrible revenge in the longest and most grisly series of executions that Russia has witnessed. No monarch—not even Catherine the Great—managed to escape this legacy of evil, and some of the Kremlin's most violent days came with the great fires of the invading Napoleon and, most recently, with the atrocities of Stalin.

In this book—the first history of the Kremlin to be published in English—the author has drawn from old and little-known archives a wealth of fascinating material which traces not only the building of the Kremlin and the city of Moscow, but also the continuing growth and development of Russian power.

KRUEGER, KARL. *The Way of the Conductor*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 256 pp. \$3.95. Why does a group of competent orchestral players need a conductor? What is his part in a performance? How does he accomplish his task? How has he come to be what he is? Why is he often invested with a romantically occult halo? Such questions and many others which occur to the inquiring layman are answered by a man who himself has conducted virtually all of the most famous orchestras of the United States, Europe and South America.

The author explains the conductor in terms of his instrument and of the music he directs. He sketches orchestral origins and traces the evolution of the great modern orchestra from out of the loosely coordinated assemblage of players that was the early orchestra. In parallel, he shows how the directing musician kept pace with the development of the orchestra as an instrument and with the demands of the music it was given to utter—from the small ensembles of the 17th and 18th centuries led by an instrumentalist, usually a cimbalist or violinist, through a period of transition when two or even more players shared the direction, to the point where the orchestra became an instrument so subtly complex, and its music so intricate and involved, that it could be controlled only by a single mind and will, that of the baton conductor.

The author evidences how the great Vienna classicists—Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven—brought the modern conductor into being and how such figures as Weber, Mendelssohn, Berlioz, Liszt, Verdi and Wagner developed him. The chapter dealing with the master conductors of the 19th century is one of the most fascinating portions of the book and should help dispel the widespread impression that the modern virtuoso conductor is a phenomenon of most recent origin. The author further points out that such pre-19th-century directors as Lully, Handel, Sebastian Bach, Gluck and some others probably practiced "conducting"—as this was understood after Beethoven—to a profounder degree than many latter-day "conductors."

He concludes with a scrutiny of the conductor's technique and his approach to a composition, making use of musical examples familiar to every listener to illustrate specific considerations. Such analyses should do much to dissipate the myth of the conductor as a magician or a tyrant, and should enable the reader

to attend concerts or listen to recordings with a much sharper awareness of what is being done and a greater appreciation of what is done well. The author's wide practical experience, deep knowledge and easy, fluent style of writing combine to make this an enjoyable as well as a highly informative book.

KURSH, HARRY. *Apprenticeships in America*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co., 55 5th Ave. 1958. 192 pp. \$3.75. This is the first complete book about apprenticeships in America. Out of exhaustive research, fact-finding, and interview with key people in government, industry, and labor the author here presents the where, the what and the how of obtaining apprentice training for vitally needed skills. The book reveals the present desperate shortage of skilled workers and forecasts an even greater need in the near future. It demonstrates clearly that there is no comparable substitute for the apprenticeship method of acquiring a skill. It presents the advantages open to apprentice-trained skilled workers—greater opportunities for promotion and advancement, higher pay, employment security. It gives the standard apprenticeship agreements and rates of pay; and it lists the types of registered apprenticeship programs. Important information is given on choosing apprentices and on how the young man can get help in choosing an apprenticeship in private industry and civil service.

LANCASTER, BRUCE. *Night March*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co., 34 Beacon St. 1958. 351 pp. \$4.50. Across the Civil War's muddy, dreary winter stalemate of 1863-1864, the famous Kilpatrick-Dahlgren raid blazed like a brilliant comet. With a force of some thirty-five hundred neglected Union cavalymen, the two leaders struck south. Their objective: the freeing of thousands of Union prisoners held on Belle Isle in the Confederate capital, Richmond.

This book follows the careers of two cavalry captains, Kirk Stedman and his friend Jake Pitler, in a story which is a true Odyssey of war and which takes them from Virginia's Rappahannock to far-off Nashville. Captured in the skirmishes which marked the failure of the raid on Richmond, Kirk and Jake are thrown into Libby Prison, a smaller, milder version of Andersonville. The nightmarish scenes of prison life are succeeded by their thrilling—and very funny—escape, and then by the chronicle of their long march south and west, far behind enemy lines.

Traveling by night, harbored by farmers, mock soldiers, bargemen and mountaineers, Kirk and Jake creep over a route actually taken by many a Yankee escapee in the war. Throughout the thrilling narrative of their secret journey runs the tender thread of a growing love: that of Kirk Stedman for Lynn Stockdale, a beautiful Canadian resident of Richmond, defiantly Southern in all her beliefs and sympathies. Her spirited struggle against the Union is continually ambushed by the hidden affection for Kirk which she cannot admit, even to herself.

LAZAREV, VICTOR, and OTTO DEMUS. *U.S.S.R., Early Russian Icons*, Volume X. Greenwich, Connecticut: New York Graphic Society, 95 E. Putnam Ave. 1958. 36 pp. and 32 plates (13" x 18½"). \$18. This is the ninth book in the UNESCO World Art Series devoted to the art masterpieces of the world. This book is certainly one of the most beautiful and important of these distinguished books. Soviet authorities, working through UNESCO,

have cooperated completely in the preparation of *U.S.S.R.*, making possible the first full-scale color presentation of an ancient and powerful tradition of religious painting. The brilliance of color, the clarity of line, the strength and splendor which characterize these icons has been almost unknown to the western world. Only in the past fifty years have scientific methods been applied to recapture their original beauty, and few of the restored paintings have ever been exhibited outside of Russia. In this volume, a selection of the finest examples in Soviet state collections are reproduced in 32 full-page color plates, printed in a special combination of offset and gravure with as many as 13 color separations. Two Russian authorities have written the text. These icons, painted during the period of Russia's struggle for national identity during the eleventh to fourteenth centuries, are today considered in the Soviet Union a great art treasure. Their presentation to the rest of the world in this entirely unique and entirely fascinating book is an achievement for the UNESCO World Art Series.

LEACH, D. E. *Flintlock and Tomahawk*. New York 11: The Macmillan Co., 60 Fifth Ave. 1958. 318 pp. \$6. King Philip's War, an intensely dramatic struggle, was the first major test for the budding civilization which had been planned in New England in the seventeenth century.

Little has been written about this great Indian war in more than half a century; indeed until now there has been no fully rounded picture of the whole society in travail—the true picture of New England in 1675-1676.

The author tells why and how it began, recalling all of its desperate massacres, battles and stratagems, tactics and logistics. Described are the military developments—the desperate fight in the Great Swamp; the surprise raid at Turner's Falls on the Connecticut River; and the daring maneuver which finally put an end to the Wampanoag sachem. Leaders of both sides—Uncas, Ninigret, Canonchet, Roger Williams, Benjamin Church, Governor Winslow, Samuel Mosely, and the ill-starred Philip—are depicted as they play their roles in the struggle. The author succeeds in recreating this crisis in New England, with all its attendant heroism, bloodshed, and suffering. This is an authoritative record of a war that was decisive for the survival of the English in New England and which caused the eventual disappearance of the Algonkian Indians.

LEE, W. S. *The Strength To Move a Mountain*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Ave. 1958. 318 pp. \$5. Half a century ago the Panama Canal in-the-making was the wonder of the world. Today it is taken for granted, and two generations of Americans have had little chance to learn about one of the great conquests in American history.

More than seventy-five years have passed since a French Canal company, headed by Ferdinand de Lesseps of Suez Canal fame, took on the Isthmus in a long dragged-out campaign during which \$260,000,000 was lost to the jungles, yellow fever and the extravagance of purchasing agents. Theodore Roosevelt claimed that he promoted the Panama revolution in 1903, but his claim did not go unchallenged. When the Americans took over in 1904, abandoned French machinery was strewn from Colon to Panama City. During the first few months of work in the Canal Zone, the American effort came almost as near fiasco as did the French. By the summer of 1914 the Canal was completed after 10 years of heart-breaking work and the expenditure of \$375,000,000 in days when labor was demanding 20 cents and 30 cents an hour.

LEY, WILLY. *Satellites, Rockets, and Outer Space*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literatures, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 132 pp. 35¢. A leading authority gives a factual, up-to-the-minute report on the history, developments, trends, and techniques of space exploration.

LIPPINCOTT, J. W. *Old Bill, The Whooping Crane*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., East Washington Sq. 1958. 176 pp. \$3. Here is the story of a brave, handsome, rare bird—the whooping crane. Old Bill, one of the last of his kind, each year wintered in Texas in the Aransas National Wildlife Refuge. When spring came Bill flew north, his great wings carrying him far into the Canadian Northwest. In autumn he began the journey southward.

Man, predators, hurricanes and tornadoes sometimes threatened Old Bill's active life. His courtship and nesting with his mate and other events, tragic and happy, proceeded in exciting, unforgettable sequence.

Because he is a naturalist of distinction and because he has studied at first hand the whooping cranes in their southern habitat, the author is able to present accurate and valuable information about these great birds. But in addition to this important contribution to natural history, he has given to readers young and old a moving and often beautiful picture of the life of a wild creature that is threatened with extinction.

LISCA, PETER. *The Wide World of John Steinbeck*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 30 College Ave. 1958. 336 pp. \$5. "John Steinbeck," says Peter Lisca, "is one of America's major living novelists." In his book, the first major critical study of Steinbeck, Mr. Lisca supports this claim.

The author carefully and thoroughly analyzes each novel, from *Cup of Gold* (1929) to *The Short Reign of Pippin IV* (1957). The chronological treatment of the novels allows him both to show the autobiographical connection between one novel and the next and to illustrate the growth of Steinbeck's ideas and the changes in his style. Mr. Lisca explores the implications of Steinbeck's "biological" view of man and explains his use of symbolism, which has gone largely unnoticed because it is so natural to his material.

Writing with shrewd and penetrating critical judgment, Mr. Lisca examines not only Steinbeck's techniques but the content achieved by those techniques. Fascinating and incisive are his conjectures as to why Steinbeck has been preoccupied with certain concepts and how the preoccupations at times have limited his achievements as a novelist.

Mr. Lisca's book is a repository of original Steinbeck material: there are copious quotations from his correspondence with his agent and publishers, as well as from some unpublished manuscripts.

MANTLEY, JOHN. *The Snow Birch*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., 300 Fourth Ave. 1958. 316 pp. \$3.95. A land as wild as it is beautiful . . . a land of sweeping grandeur, of lakes, islands, rushing white-plumed rivers . . . a land that presents a fierce and lonely challenge to any man who dares to tame it. It is here that Tom Sharron brings his Irish bride, and here that Robbie Sharron was born on Christmas Day. In the far woods of Canada Robbie grows and comes to know both the wildness and the gentleness of nature as few do—the beavers building their dams, the timid deer, even the bears. But when his father dies during a forest fire, life changes drastically for Robbie with his mother's remarriage to a man as untamed as the country in which they live.

MARS, ALASTAIR. *Fire in Anger*. New York 16: M. S. Mill Co., Inc., 425 Fourth Ave. 1958. 222 pp. \$3.50. The novel starts in England, sometime in the not-too-distant future, with an American engineer, Paul Wright, and an English naval officer, John Dering, key men in a sensational turn of fate. Dering, a brilliant submariner during World War II, is quietly going to ruin in Britain's mothball fleet. Only his love for Nina, an enchanting Czech refugee, has kept him in one piece.

But thanks to the faith of his friends, Dering is made standby commander of the newest and most powerful atomic submarine in the world, the *Avenger*, and Paul Wright is the man who has been superintending her construction.

With a revolution and dangerous unrest in Eastern Europe, the *Avenger's* commander is put out of action by foreign agents and—on its trial run—John Dering takes command.

The world situation is triggered as the submariners make their way through the ocean depths. In the *Avenger* herself there is a personal war of nerves, intensified by the presence of a person who never should have been aboard.

Above the sea, revolution mushrooms into a plan for world conquest that proceeds on a deadly timetable. The *Avenger* and her men become the one weapon, the one crew between the enemy and his goal.

MARSH, NGAIO. *Singing in the Shrouds*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co., 34 Beacon St. 1958. 282 pp. \$3.50. This book treats the reader to a new glimpse into the ever-exciting career of that splendidly nonchalant, incomparably observant gentleman from Scotland Yard, Superintendent Roderick Alleyn. With the first sentence of the story, evoking in all its foreboding mystery a foggy night over the harbor of London, the spell begins.

In the darkness of the dock area a girl is found dead. Clutched tightly in her hand is a torn fragment of a passenger embarkation notice for a departing freighter. In quest of the killer, Alleyn comes quietly aboard just as the ship heads seaward. His first problem, obviously, is to find whether the murderer is actually on the ship. But as almost everyone he meets among both passengers and crew seems to be a likely suspect, and as there are no obvious clues, he can find no way of solving the puzzle but to set the stage for the slayer to attempt to kill again.

McCLINTOCK, THEODORE. *Animal Close-Ups*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 160 pp. \$3.50. This book has many unusual features, not generally found in other animal books. We are told where the animals live in their wild state, how they "make a living" in their natural habitat—how they find food, shelter, etc.; what their habits are in captivity; something about their physical characteristics, and some amusing facts about many of them. There is an explanation of the differences to be found in the various kinds of bears and deer, for example, in two kinds of kangaroos, etc.

The author has started with a collection of beautiful photographs of animals by Desider Holisher, and, in addition to giving us all the interesting facts available about these animals, has raised a number of questions to stimulate the curiosity of his readers and to broaden their horizons. The author has taken advantage of striking examples of general ideas in biology, such as adaptability ("Do anteaters eat small insects because of their peculiar mouths?") to spur the reader on to further reading.

MCCORMICK, WILFRED. *The Hot Corner*. New York 3: David McKay Co., Inc., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 186 pp. \$3. Here is another thrilling sports story of skill on the baseball field, the challenge to clean playing, and last-minute exploits that will appeal to every boy. The third in the popular Rocky McCune series, it is concerned with the ideals of sportsmanship and fair play as well as the zest of fine playing and competition. As coach of the Koulee nine, Rocky is confronted with the problem of a likable youngster whose unfortunate background has taught him a few unsavory tricks. In Red Bostic, Rocky has a talented pitcher but one who cheats without any sense of guilt. The harassed coach is further troubled by the knowledge that some clever former professional is passing on to Red illegal pitches, and Rocky hesitates to use the boy. But the home-town press wants to see Red Bostic pitch and the team come out on top all the time, regardless of the means used to achieve this end.

When the other players on the team fall under Red's sway, and begin to pick up some of his tricks, Rocky almost despairs of convincing the team that clean playing is more important than winning—but he is proved right and Red vindicates himself in an exciting, stirring wind-up to Koulee's season.

McGAVRAN, G. W. *They Live in Bible Lands*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 128 pp. \$2.95. This is a revised version of a book that has remained in popular demand since its first printing in 1950. Two new stories have been added, one on literacy and the other based on one of the most exciting discoveries of our time—the Dead Sea scrolls.

Each of the stories in this collection is preceded by a short factual section that explains the history of the Middle Eastern land where the action of the tale takes place; a general introductory chapter traces briefly what happened in Bible countries between the close of New Testament times and the present day.

METCALF, E. S. *How You Can Teach Johnnie To Read*. New York 1: Vantage Press, Inc., 120 West 31st St. 1958. 87 pp. \$2.50. This lucid, straightforward, immensely practical book offers you the answer and the way to solve the reading-difficulty problem—a problem so widespread in this country that remedial reading classes are springing up all over the U. S.—at college level! Everyone is aware of the situation—educators, parents, employers, the young people themselves.

MINCIELI, R. L. *Tales, Merry and Wise*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co., Inc., 383 Madison Ave. 1958. 128 pp. \$3. Here is a collection of original Italian folk tales from the region of Bari on the Adriatic shores of Italy. They were told to the author in Italian by her mother and uncle, and to them by their grand-parents and great grand-parents before them. The tales have withstood the test of time and have been preserved for centuries through the human voice rather than through written records. They are here recorded with their simplicity and humor for the first time.

MONTGOMERY, E. R. *The Story Behind Popular Songs*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co., 432 Fourth Ave. 1958. 270 pp. \$3. Among the favorite song writers whose biographies are presented authentically, effectively and amusingly are: Victor Herbert, Rudolf Friml, William C. Handy, George M. Cohan, George and Ira Gershwin, Richard Whiting, Cole Porter, Duke Ellington, Irving Berlin and Hoagy Carmichael.

Besides her keen appraisal of the contribution of each of these composers in the field of popular songs, the author presents a sensitive picture of the background of each personality, based on firsthand contact with every subject or with people who knew them well.

MORGAN, MURRAY. *Doctors to the World*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Ave. 1958. 303 pp. \$5. This is a vivid and heartening story of men and medicine working together against tremendous odds to conquer disease and improve the general health of millions of people. Out of 28,000 miles of travel, from the villages of Mexico to the Amazon jungle, from the high plateaus of the Andes to the wilds of Africa, the author has written a warmly personal account of a great international effort. Ten years ago the United Nations created the World Health Organization and gave it the tremendous assignment of working "for the attainment by all people of the highest level of health." With a world population of two and a half billion, two-thirds of whom live where sickness and undernourishment are normal conditions, this a staggering task, especially on an annual budget approximating the cost of one intercontinental bomber.

MULDER, WILLIAM, and A. R. MORTENSEN, editors. *Among the Mormons*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 512 pp. \$6.75. This "documentary history" presents the full chronicle of the Mormons, once "the most vigorously lied about people on earth," but now recognized as a vital current in the main stream of American life. It begins with Joseph Smith's own account of his discovery of the fabulous gold plates, and traces the movement of his followers through their struggles in Missouri and Illinois and the reign of Brigham Young to the surrender of polygamy and today's "era of good feeling."

The events and personalities are seen through the fresh and penetrating—though often prejudiced—eyes of contemporary observers. Lucius Fenn, an early disciple, tells of the spreading of the Word in "Something Is a Going to Take Place," and evangelist Nancy Towle writes about these "very singular people" after their first move "Away to the Ohio." We hear from rabidly anti-Mormon newspapers ("Trouble in Jackson County") and a Mormon apostle ("Sidney Rigdon's Ultimatum") as tempers erupt in civil conflict wherever the Mormons settle. An Adams and a Quincy follow the Mormons to Nauvoo the Beautiful ("Two Boston Brahmins Call on the Propht"), and a country doctor clears his conscience by describing the shooting of Joseph Smith ("Martyrdom at Carthage").

The great exodus into the wilderness is narrated from several points of view, most poignantly by Colonel Thomas L. Kane in "The Mormon Encampments." A Forty-Niner, passing through, describes the miracle of life in the Mormons' final refuge, and Ralph Waldo Emerson comes out to Zion to find in the Saints' doctrines "An Afterclap of Puritanism." Charles Dickens portrays a departing boatload of Mormon immigrants; Eliza Cumming writes home charming "Letters from the Governor's Lady" that speak volumes about life at Salt Lake City.

After 1869 the travelers come in droves to gawk at polygamy, and only a few like Phil Robinson ("The Orderville Brethren") do more than count wives. Gradually isolation ends—Wilford Woodruff's manifesto calls off the "cohab hunts"—and nation and sect are reconciled. In the new century, with Utah no longer a storm center of religious controversy, we have such

delightful sketches as Bernard De Voto's "Sin Comes to Ogden" and Wallace Stegner's "Hometown Revisited."

It is a long way from the earliest rumors about Joseph Smith's angelic visitations to tourist views of a society that, after 125 years, is the fruit of these visions.

MURPHY, DENNIS. *The Sergeant*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1958. 254 pp. \$3.50. This is a story of the struggle for a young man's soul—the struggle between his unwilling attraction to a powerful and possessive older man and his idyllic, tender love for a girl. The boy is an American GI at a postwar Army base in France; the older man is his sergeant, who, out of his loneliness and need, tries to take possession of him; Solange is the young and attractive French girl with whom he falls in love. It is not until the relation with the sergeant comes to a head in violence that he is able to free himself for the girl; and the story is resolved in a moving scene that holds both tragedy and fulfillment.

NEFF, W. L., and M. G. PLANER. *World History for a Better World*, second edition. Milwaukee 1, Wis.: The Bruce Publishing Co., 400 North Broadway. 1958. 840 pp. This book, first published in 1953, is designed to eliminate confusion for the student. History is treated chronologically up to the rise of national states, then each country is treated separately. Through cross references and time lines, the developments in each country can be followed in their relationship to other countries. The book is based on the theme that disregard of human rights are to blame for the present world conditions and that a better world can be built on recognition of the dignity of man.

The Foreword explains and in a broad way traces the theme of the book: human rights based on the natural law. This should be studied as carefully as any of the succeeding chapters. The Introduction explains what history is, why and how we study it. It explains the various factors that must be considered by the student of history: the factors that shape the course of history. This, too, must be studied carefully.

The organization of the book has been simplified as much as possible. It is divided into eighteen units.

The first eight units cover ancient and medieval history with emphasis on events and developments which affect our world today. The treatment is for the most part chronological, although in some periods civilizations were developing simultaneously. With the beginning of the modern world the authors go back into history to pick up the story of the national states, and then develop each to the time of World War I. By following this plan the student can study the story of each nation state to that time in its entirety. Time lines will help to show what was happening in other national states in the same period. There is another advantage in this plan. If a pupil is working on a project or doing supplementary reading, he will be able to complete it before the class begins a study of the next unit. Thus Units IX through XIV deal with national states from their beginning to World War I.

Since most of the major national states were involved in World War I, the authors believed it wise to treat that war as a separate unit—Unit XV. Unit XVI, after dealing with the failure of the Versailles Treaty, returns to the treatment of nations old and new. Unit XVII treats of World War II; Unit XVIII, of the postwar world. Less attention is given to military history than to the causes for the war and to the attempts to bring about world peace. The book closes with a chapter entitled "Youth Faces the Future."

This new revision includes: 1. A completely up to date picture of Canada's position in the world today. 2. More recent data on the past and present events in Mexico, South American countries and the relationships of these nations to the United States. 3. In a current summary of conditions in Europe, attention is given to the formation of the European defense community, the European common market, the status of the NATO nations, recovery of Germany and Italy after the second world war. 4. An excellent report on the situation in the middle east along with a step by step analysis of the circumstances leading to the Suez crisis and the events that took place at that time. 5. New material on the concluding of treaties between nations involved in the second world war as well as conditions governing the Korean settlement. 6. An appraisal of the current balance of power between the free world and the communist block.

NELSON, H. C. *A Handbook of Drafting Rules and Principles*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 109-111 W. Market St. 1958. 96 pp. \$2. This book provides a foundation of the principles of drawing, dimensioning, and projection. It helps the student understand *why*, along with teaching him *how*. This brief and definite source of information presents rules grouped under several main classifications—organized so that any rule may be quickly found. These rules conform to A.S.A. standards, and to the prevailing recent trends in drafting. It may be used as a brief source of information, a standard for drafting room practice, an aid in correcting, drawings, and a guide for the selection of subject matter. The material presented in this book provides a foundation for further study. The chapters on projection, intersections, revolutions, developments, and pictorial drawings provide a background for engineering geometry.

New World Writing #13. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 320 pp. 75¢. This is a collection of stories, poetry, essays, and drama written by authors from all parts of the world. A Mentor Book.

NEWELL, H. E., JR. *Space Book for Young People*. New York 36: Whittlesey House, 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 114 pp. \$2.95. Here is an explanation of earth and its position in the universe—atmosphere, the moon and satellites, the sun and the other planets, galaxies, comets, meteors, asteroids, eclipses.

In addition, it gives us up-to-date facts about space and space travel, rockets and satellites. And it supplies the mathematics which is necessary for a real understanding of space distances and rocket speeds, *etc.*

It is a book on a subject vital to today's young scientists, with black-and-white illustrations that bring everything into easy focus for the reader.

NIELSEN, K. L. *College Mathematics*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Ave. 1958. 320 pp. \$1.95. This book has concentrated on the fundamental concepts of algebra, trigonometry, and analytic geometry, with an introduction to the calculus. The book is complete in itself and, although it is not intended to be used as a textbook, it may be read with profit by those who are beginning the study of college mathematics. It should provide any reader with a thorough knowledge of the usual topics studied during the first year in this field.

Each concept has been illustrated with figures, solved problems, and examples. Neatness and systematic manner of solving the problems have been stressed, for these should be products of the study of mathematics. Logical

thinking and elimination of errors can be achieved by the adaptation of systematic procedures. Abbreviated tables have been placed in the back of the book for computational purposes. If the reader finds a need for greater accuracy, he can obtain more extensive tables in this College Outline Series and will not experience any difficulty in using them.

A thorough knowledge of any branch of mathematics cannot be obtained without solving problems. Consequently, a few typical exercises have been placed at the end of each chapter. The student is urged to work all the exercises. Answers are furnished to those that require answers, so that the reader may check his work. A set of examinations, with answers, forms a part of this book, and it is hoped that they may aid the student in his preparation for any examination.

Occupational Outlook Handbook. Bulletin No. 1215. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 703 pp. (8" x 10 1/4"). \$4. This third edition of the Occupational Outlook Handbook is being issued to replace the second edition, Bulletin No. 998, which was published in 1951.

Recognizing that people interested in choosing a career need information on the employment outlook in the Nation's occupations, the Congress in 1940 provided for the establishment of an Occupational Outlook Service in the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. The wide use of the first and second editions of the Handbook clearly attests the need for such information. More than 40,000 copies of the first edition were sold, and more than 45,000 of the second. Many high schools, colleges, and community agencies throughout the country rely upon the Handbook in their vocational guidance services, as do Federal and State agencies offering counseling services—including the Veterans Administration, the Department of Defense, State rehabilitation agencies, and offices of State employment services affiliated with the United States Employment Service.

In view of the rapid changes which characterize the American economy, the Congress in 1955 provided for a program of regular reappraisal of the employment outlook and for the maintenance of the Occupational Outlook Handbook and its related publications on an up-to-date basis. This action made possible the present edition of the Handbook and its subsequent biennial revision, as well as the initiation of a new periodical, *The Occupational Outlook*, which is being issued four times annually to provide a flow of up-to-date information between editions of the Handbook.

The third edition includes new chapters on such significant fields as the physical and biological sciences and the rapidly growing chemicals and atomic energy industries. It also embodies a reappraisal of the employment outlook in nearly all the industries and occupations described in the second edition, together with the latest available information on earnings, training, and entrance requirements in these fields of work.

O'ROURKE, FRANK. *The Last Ride*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 256 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of a wild horse roundup during the summer of 1916, when such horses were being bought by the army for military purposes.

The action takes place in northern New Mexico and, in particular, it is the story of John Hatton and his struggle to capture a magnificent wild chestnut stallion.

"Uncle" John Hatton is sixty-five years old and hard as steel. With two young companions he heads for the Sangre de Cristo range—in John's words, an area of "big mountains and canyons, goats and rocks and timber, and wild as hell."

The descriptions of how herds, or ramadas, of wild horses are rounded up are both fascinating and meticulously detailed. And the job of breaking the horses once they have been taken is equally exciting.

Against this background, the author tells the dramatic story of Uncle John's struggle to capture one single stallion who is much too alert and much too fast to be trapped by any of the usual methods. Although he is taken at last, the aftermath is not what one expects. In effect, it is a climax that spells out the measure of a man.

OTIS, A. S. *Added Revenue Without Burden*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Ave. 1958. 123 pp. \$3. "We are all well aware of the fact that the need for revenue for purposes of government increases from year to year. At present we feel an urgent need for more and better schools, for more and better highways, and for many other things. We are aware also that present taxes are burdensome and in many instances inequitable, as will be shown in this essay.

"The new plan of taxation proposed in this essay is designed to accomplish two main purposes," namely, (1) to provide additional revenue by tapping a source now inadequately drawn upon, and (2) gradually to supplant some of the present methods of taxation by substituting a method that is the least possible burden and the most equitable. The plan is based on recognition of the fact that in any community in which land values are rising, the increase in the rental value of land accruing to landowners is a source of revenue that may be drawn upon further without burden to the landowner. A fundamental feature of the plan is the method by which the tax is based upon the assessed rental value of the land rather than upon its assessed capital value as at present.

The purpose of the new plan of taxation is to increase tax revenues, to make the distribution of taxes more equitable, and to do so without hardship to anyone.

PALLAS, NORVIN. *The Counterfeit Mystery*. New York 3: Ives Washburn, Inc., 55 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 192 pp. \$2.75. Not long before Ted Wilford leaves for college, he is asked by the *Town Crier's* editor to keep an eye on the salesman who is setting up a trading stamp plan in their town. The editor has no particular reason to suspect anything is wrong, but as a sponsor of the plan, he feels that Ted, with his extensive experience during his high-school days on the paper, can keep a careful eye on the whole set-up if he works in the company's local sales office for a few weeks.

At first Ted thought the stamp plan was a splendid idea for the town, the stores, and the customers. But several unexplained incidents puzzled him, and almost at once he found himself in the midst of a fullfledged mystery.

With the help of his newspaper editor, Ted uncovers a fascinating scheme for counterfeiting the trading stamps. Mixed up in the strange pattern of events is a girl who says she has "lost" her home town. The working of the trading stamp plan and the ingenious counterfeiting game, plus what Ted learns about the dangers of circumstantial evidence, make the solution of this sixth Ted Wilford mystery especially exciting and interesting.

PARSONS, G. A. *Cut Bait, Johnny*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co., Inc., 383 Madison Ave. 1958. 189 pp. \$3.00. This is a story of the adventure of Johnny Honeycutt on the Ohio River. He lives with Jimbo Pickins, the one-armed riverman, while his family travels on their junkboat and trades with the river towns. Johnny goes to school, lives in a shantyboat, and soaks up Jimbo's wisdom about Ohio River life.

On a hillside back of Jimbo's mooring there's a shy, mysterious boy who lives by himself. Johnny and Jimbo befriend him and he comes to share their excitement fishing for the big ones, and their dream of landing Old Scrap, the big channel catfish. Together they have skirmishes with two schoolboy trouble-makers on the river. And like true shantyboaters, they befriend anybody in need who comes to their door. In winter they contend with the "big freeze" when the river is frozen solid for a mile across, and in spring they contend with the flood.

PEARCE, C. O. *William Penn*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 383 Madison Ave. 1958. 192 pp. \$3. The "holy experiment" which William Penn established in Pennsylvania was the outgrowth of the recurring pressures and persecutions he had suffered during the civil wars of England.

The author, whose adult life of Penn was published by Lippincott earlier this year, presents a carefully developed biography of the son of Admiral Penn, of his exile in Ireland with his family, of the gradual convictions he shared with George Fox's followers, the Society of Friends, and of his later imprisonment in England for those beliefs.

Several lesser-known chapters are revealed here: the canny manipulations through which the Ford family gained legal control over Penn's deed to his land grant, the story of his marriage first to Gulielma Springett and many years later, after her death, to Hannah Callowhill. Both women endured years of tribulation and separation as Penn crossed the Atlantic in the interests of his colony.

Penn's fairness in dealing with the Indians is underscored.

PERRY, JOHN. *17 Million Jobs*. New York 36: Whittlesey House, 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 236 pp. \$3.95. In the vast complex field which is industry today, how are the young man and the young woman to choose the places which are right for them? Here, for the first time, is a complete picture of that industrial scene and the opportunities it offers to those who are now planning careers.

The author discusses large plants and small; the roles of workers skilled and unskilled; the place of women as well as men; the structure of manufacturing plants. He gives clear descriptions of starting jobs, their requirements, what they pay, what they offer, what education or apprenticeship is required. The need for scientists in industry particularly is examined, as is the demand for engineers and technicians.

This book makes interesting reading for anyone. At the same time, it is a comprehensive guide to the countless possibilities for satisfying futures in our highly developed industrial world. This is an instructive showcase for the reader who wants to make an informed decision about his future. It is presented with authority by an author whose work as a management consultant has taken him to all parts of the United States and given him the opportunity to interview hundreds of young men and women at work.

POOLE, LYNN. *Frontiers of Science*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St. 1958. 173 pp. \$3.25. Here is an exciting preview of developments now under way in various scientific fields. Both single discoveries and wide-area advancement are discussed, and these are some of the fabulous frontiers included: infrared photography, harnessing of solar energy, burial of hot garbage (the dangerous waste products of atomic energy), new and improved methods of locating mineral deposits, chemurgy (the search for new industrial uses for organic raw materials), digital computers, and miniaturization (the reduction of complex apparatus—the first man-made satellite contained enough instruments to send back 200 pieces of information at one time and weighed only 10½ pounds).

RICHTMEYER, C. C., and J. W. FOUST. *Business Mathematics*, fourth edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. 424 pp. \$5.75. This book is designed primarily for college classes that include students who wish a general course in practical mathematics, students who are planning to enter various commercial fields, and students who are preparing to teach commercial arithmetic in secondary schools.

Presupposing only elementary and secondary school mathematics, the authors have developed a thorough treatment of the principles and applications of arithmetic for the more mature student. The problems are well graded, ranging from comparatively simple ones to those which will challenge the ability of the best students. All topics are developed in detail and are followed by a large number of illustrative examples, accompanied by step-by-step explanations. Algebraic manipulations and symbolism are kept to a minimum. An elementary treatment of a number of topics from the fields of finance and statistics is included.

In this fourth edition the exercise and problem lists have been revised, expanded, and brought up to date. The student will find more numerical problems in arithmetic and geometric progressions than in previous editions. Additional problems have also been included on depreciation, computation by logarithms, and bonds and annuities due. The method of multiplication and division of fractions has been given a graphic explanation, and the process of dividing by a fraction has been given a rational explanation. Other improvements include a formal definition of the highest common factor, definitions of the fundamental metric units, an expanded discussion of greatest and least possible sums of approximate numbers, and a clarification of the concept of the greatest and least possible quotient. The authors have further clarified the process of immediate discounting of promissory notes and have included additional illustrations on operations with logarithms.

The present edition includes the series of student self-tests that have proved so popular in the past. Lists of supplementary references may be found at the end of each chapter. All necessary tables are provided, including a five-place table of logarithms, interest and annuity tables, and a table of powers, roots, and reciprocals.

RIENOW, ROBERT. *American Problems Today*, second edition. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Ave. 1958. 734 pp. \$4.80. In this revised edition, every problem is presented on a reason-why basis. Students are encouraged to use the background provided in the text to draw their own conclusions. The author has rewritten the entire book, so that each chapter contains an up-to-date approach to a contemporary problem. For example,

the chapter on *Social Security* includes all revisions in the Social Security Act, and discusses private pension plans and the guaranteed annual wage. Automation and its effect on the worker, "right to work" laws, and the merger of the AFL and CIO are fully covered in the chapter on *The Relations of Labor and Industry*. In *Political Parties and the High Cost of Campaigning*, the text treats the increasing importance of labor as a force in politics. Activities for each chapter stimulate discussion of current aspects of the problem. The up-to-date bibliographies include books, pamphlets, and periodicals.

Two new chapters on *Water and Welfare* and *National Defense* present to the student two of the most important current problems. Here, in accordance with the book's method of teaching, both sides of the problem are given, and the student is encouraged to draw his own conclusions. The *Declaration of Independence* and the Constitution have been included in a supplementary section for ease and speed in reference work. *The Control of Weapons of War* provides current information on the destructive capacity of a hydrogen bomb, radiation and its possible effects, and a discussion of missiles as weapons for total destruction, with quotes from many of our foremost scientists. *The United Nations and the Search for Peace* describes the UN and its functions as a world forum. In addition, the chapter emphasizes the importance of alliances such as NATO, and the effect of such alliances on the UN.

Timely graphic material and a wealth of illustrations make this text interesting to students. Every page is well designed for easy reading. Each unit is preceded by an introduction, while every chapter concludes with a vocabulary test, review questions, and a guide for further research on the part of the students. *A Teacher's Manual* presents suggestions on using the book, an example of a teaching plan, answers to review questions, an additional reading list, and a film list.

ROBERTS, H. L., editor. *The Satellites in Eastern Europe*. Philadelphia 4: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3937 Chesnut St. 1958 (May). 240 pp. \$2. The present issue of THE ANNALS has been planned as a sequel to the issue of September 1950, *Moscow's European Satellites*, edited by Joseph S. Roucek. Whereas the first set of studies was centrally concerned with the Communist seizure of power in East Central Europe in the 1940's and with the initial Sovietization, the essays that follow deal with the vicissitudes of the 1950's, a period of mingled hope and despair for the hard-pressed peoples of the area. The pivotal point in these years was the death of Stalin, in March 1953; the climax, the dramatic and tragic events of October and November 1956. And yet, as we look back from our present vantage point in 1958, it becomes clear that 1953, while a turning point, by no means implied a rupture with the past; and that 1956, a year of such high achievements and crushing disasters, was no terminus, either for good or for ill. The end of the story is not in sight.

The organization and arrangement of these essays attempt to suggest both the dramatic and the problematic quality of the last eight years in East Central Europe: following an introductory section to set the stage and to trace the transition from the final years of the Stalin era to the beginnings of the "New Course" and the "Thaw," attention is devoted to the broader economic, social, and cultural problems and prospects of the "Peoples Democracies." From this the studies turn to the crisis of the Stalinist system, a crisis that differed widely in intensity and manifestation from one country

to another. Finally, Eastern Europe is placed in its international setting as one of the most important and refractory problems of the contemporary world.

ROBERTS, KENNETH. *The Battle of Cowpens*. New York 22: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 575 Madison Avenue. 1957. 122 pp. \$3.50. Shortly before his death last year the author received a special Pulitzer citation for his historical writing. Here is his brilliantly conceived account of how 900 ill-fed, ill-clothed sharpshooters led by young Daniel Morgan routed Banastre Tarleton's superbly trained, splendidly equipped British regulars.

The Battle of the Cowpens, which takes its name from a South Carolina grazing meadow, was the psychological and military turning point of the American Revolution. An amazing encounter lasting only one hour, it set the stage for the final cornering of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown.

This book is the last historical work by Kenneth Roberts to be published. This one momentous hour in American history has been recreated in the finest Kenneth Roberts tradition.

ROBERTSON, L. S. *Farm Management*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., E. Washington Sq. 1955. 461 pp. \$4.40. This book is written to give information about the farm as a business unit that will help in the making of management decisions. It is intended primarily for high school students who are approaching a period when the decisions they make in farm organization and operation become extremely important to them. It is useful also to operating farmers, landowners, and other persons connected with farming.

The book is written in nontechnical language. Principles are made clear by illustrations that show how the principles apply to situations with which readers are likely to be familiar. While no book can give detailed specific information for all the many special conditions that exist in this country, the principles apply anywhere and the illustrations are chosen from a wide variety of conditions. The questions and suggestions for classroom discussion at the end of each chapter make possible a demonstration of the local application of the farm management facts and principles presented.

ROOT, WAVERLEY. *The Food of France*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 537 pp. \$10. This book discusses in detail, region by fascinating region, the endlessly various dishes that have made France the gourmet's native home. It is the savory product of a gastronome's inquisitive journey, lasting many years, through all of France. A compendium of good eating, it is also larded throughout with fascinating digressions about history, nomenclature, language, architecture, and local customs. Offering the pleasures of good reading and the usefulness of a reference book, it is without parallel both among books about food and among books about France.

Guaranteed to delight all lovers of good eating and all Francophiles, it will fill even the most sedentary reader with a desire to set off at once for Paris and the provinces. It will make the most fumble-handed itch to try their skill at cooking (though it is not a book of recipes). Lighted always by the author's long-time love for the land of France and what its people eat and drink, the book is most engagingly written, often highly amusing, and always thoroughly informed. The author has himself tried most French foods in the regions to which they are native; he writes of what he has tasted, tested, and judged. From peasant fare to *haute cuisine*, all of it is here.

ROPER, ELMO. *You and Your Leaders*. New York 16: William Morrow & Co., 425 Fourth Ave. 1957. 288 pp. \$3.95. This illuminating book centers upon nine recent American leaders, from Franklin D. Roosevelt to Dwight D. Eisenhower.

It is, in effect, a new kind of history by a pioneer in the field of public opinion research—a factual record of our own shifting attitudes toward persons and issues.

Scholars and diplomats, writers and researchers, leaders in the field of communications, have already been lavish in their praise of Mr. Roper's accomplishment.

RUECHARDT, EDUARD. *Light*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1958. 201 pp. \$4.50. Light is known to us from the moment we first see the light of day—yet its true nature is unknown to science. But light is the scientist's most useful tool.

Visible and invisible light makes photographs in the dark, heats our homes, weighs and measures stars, opens doors, cooks food, and even permits us to see through a solid block of steel.

The author sums up what we know today of the nature and behavior of light, how we found it out, and how we use our knowledge. Among the things he explains are infra-red photography, and why the sky is blue.

One hundred and thirty seven illustrations accompany the text to show how science has unraveled some of light's secrets, and to present the astounding things we have done with light—visible and invisible.

SANDOZ, MARI. *The Cattlemen*. New York 22: Hastings House, 41 East 50th St. 1958. 541 pp. \$6.50. This is the story of cattle in America and of the men whose ranches reached from the Rio Grande up into the far regions of Montana. In its sweep it ranges from Early Spanish days, through the era of far-flung cattle empires, down to our own times.

Coronado and his Spaniards brought in the ancestors of the Longhorns which were to be the basis of the cattle industry. Many of these animals escaped into the "brush"; others were stampeded by Indians. The "brush critters" survived because they could weather the terrible blizzards and droughts, could scent a water hole 30 miles away. By the end of the War between the States they had multiplied to an estimated 5,000,000 head or more. Veterans of that conflict poured into Texas; and such dedicated men as Carter, King, the Slaughters, Goodnight corraled the wild cattle, then drove them up to Illinois—even to New York.

As the railroads moved west, the herds were trailed to railheads: McCoy's Abilene, Ogallala, Dodge City. All were wide open towns, attracting a gaudy populace from all quarters—"Wild Bill" Hickok, the Thompsons, Riley, the Mastersons, Wyatt Earp. The author paints vivid pen portraits of these rip-snorting times.

Then, within her larger picture, the author records the relentless campaigns against the "rustlers," and describes the "shotgun quarantines" set up in an attempt to stop the spread of tick fever from the Longhorns to the northern herds.

SAVERY, CONSTANCE. *Magic in My Shoes*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 160 pp. \$2.75. In the summer of 1766, Sally Pershore goes to visit her Aunt Persis in the country. Aunt Persis has recently moved, and Sally soon sees that things are not going well in

the new home. Three orphan boys, triplets, have been parceled out among the neighbors as was the custom of those days, and Aunt Persis has taken one.

But the boy, Josset Ormond, does not wish to stay with her; his heart is torn by the separation from the other two boys—his brothers—put out to hard masters, and he feels he must be with them at all costs, so he tries to run away at every opportunity. Aunt Persis thinks to solve this problem by locking him in the attic—he escapes, but when brought back he thinks of a better plan and promises not to run away again unless he first tells Aunt Persis he is taking back his promise. From then on the odd becomes the usual. Shoes that fitted perfectly one day, pinch Josset dreadfully the next. A day when he recites his lessons brilliantly is followed by one when his ignorance is a disgrace. He is seen in several places at once. Sometimes he is ravenous and again he has no appetite. There is an ugly rumor spreading through the village that Aunt Persis is starving both Josset and her niece; they are so thin.

SCHMELTZER, KURT. *The Axe of Bronze*. New York 10: Sterling Publishing Co., Inc., 121 East 24th St. 1958. 142 pp. \$2.50. This is the unusual story of a group of teen-age boys living in two neighboring villages in England about 1800 B. C., at a time when most of the adult males are erecting the Great Stones at Stonehenge, an event in which several of the boys themselves participate.

While the men are away from home obtaining the stones and transporting them by boat to Salisbury Plain, the boys are the hunters and fishermen who provide the food and protection for the women, older men and children of the villages. They work without the tools we know, for this is the Early Bronze Age, when ores and metals are just beginning to be used and are still considered tools of the devil by one of the village priests.

When Birno saves the life of Alf, from the next village, and is given an axe of bronze as a reward, trouble begins for both villages. How the struggle between the two villages ends in closer unity, how religious superstition is abandoned, and how a stone is placed at Stonehenge, form the basis of a compelling story which moves briskly along without letdown. In one of the book's most stirring scenes, one of the boys puts a bright idea into practice for the first time—getting oxen instead of women to pull plows.

SCHOONOVER, LAWRENCE. *The Revolutionary*. Boston 6: Little, Brown & Co., 34 Beacon St. 1958. 505 pp. \$5. There once lived a man who was born a Scottish gardener's son, grew up to hold half a new continent in one hand while he burned and pillaged the ships of England with the other, and died, half mad from laudanum, in old France. He is a legend, and his name was John Paul Jones.

This is his story. Half hero, half pirate, he combined the stubborn blood of Scotland with the cruelty of its old warriors, the ambition of America with its new young conscience. Driven sometimes by bitterness, sometimes by love, scourged by shame and compelled by ardor, he sailed a noose around the Old World and pulled it tight to free the New.

His love of ships drew a net across the Seven Seas: from the gentle civilities of young Virginia to the burning mists of Africa, with its terrible black cargo; from Jamaica for rum to America for steel; from muffled Turkish galleys. And slipping through the narrative of his long sea journeys,

splashings in the dark of the night off England to the holocaust of the gleaming now here, now there, are the elusive figures of the women he loved: the icebound and fiery Kitty, daughter of a great plantation; golden-thighed Dolores, whose body held all the mystery of the slumbering African jungle; flirtatious Lydia, half actress, half fishwife; Dorothea Dandridge, whom any man might want as wife; the terrible Catherine of Russia.

SHIRLEY, GLENN. *Buckskin and Spurs*. New York 22: Hastings House, 41 E. 50th St. 1958. 205 pp. \$4.50. More thrilling than most fictionalized "Westerns" are these authentic, salty and lively accounts of a dozen frontier villains and heroes—some in buckskin, some with spurs—sketched here in vivid pen portraits. For these were men who lived dangerously and, for the most part, died suddenly in the wild era of the West during the second half of the past and the beginning of the present century. Less well-known than some of our over-exploited frontier characters, their deeds were nonetheless equal in daring and excitement to the better-touted gunmen of television fame.

SHOCKET, M. *Cinq Annes de Francais*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 E. 57th St. 1958. 171 pp. \$1.50. This second book of the course should provide the material for a cheerful and energetic second year, with the ever present aim of rendering the pupil articulate in French, while intensifying his interest in the language.

Nearly every chapter contains: a reading passage which introduces the main grammatical points; a set piece for practice in pronunciation and intonation; oral and written exercises, an additional 'conversation' exercise for oral consolidation, dealing with a specific topic; a guided composition.

In the reading material the student is introduced to the cultural heritage of France, in adaptations from Molière, Dumas and Maupassant. There are several songs and poems, which should, among other things, provide diverting pronunciation and intonation practice.

In addition to the set piece of "pronunciation" in each chapter there is a formal phonetics supplement which may be used at any time in the year, or may, of course, be completely ignored.

The book has been constructed to produce flexibility and breadth of expression, while providing a systematic consolidation of the fundamental grammatical points which arise naturally from the material. Even at this stage—the second year—there should be in the book some preparation for the future 'scholar', while less gifted pupils will acquire, I hope, though of necessity more slowly, the ability of understanding, speaking and writing correct French, and considerable pleasure in achieving their objective.

SMITH, A. H. *The Mushroom Hunter's Field Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1958. 203 pp. The usual scientific procedures, those involving laboratory work or serious home study, do not form a part of this presentation since the author believes these are not required. He is concerned here with the mushrooms most easily identified by their pictures. The illustrations, therefore, are the backbone of this book. Formal descriptions of the species are omitted, and, in place of them, a discussion of the important field characters is substituted. The guide covers the Great Lake region, the western and the northeastern United States. Only a small portion of the book is devoted to the southern states. The author includes not only the edible, but also the dangerous mushrooms. Since there is no rigid classi-

fication into "good" and "bad," he has also included a number of common intermediate kind.

SMITH, N. B. *Be a Better Reader*, Book II. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 128 pp. \$1.32. The book explains ways for developing different skills in reading various kinds of materials for different purposes. Opportunities are presented for the student to practice these skills in science, social studies, mathematics, and literature. Also included are reviews in phonics, word structure, locating information, rapid reading, and vocabulary. The pupil is shown how to select those skills best suited to the materials being used.

SMITH, R. P. *How To Do Nothing with Nobody All Alone by Yourself*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co., 5th Ave. 1958. 125 pp. \$2.95. Remember how to make a spool tank? How to ship apples? What to do with an old umbrella? Whether "pennies" comes before or after "spank the baby" in mumblypeg? You don't? You've forgotten? And your kid never knew any of these things in the first place, to forget in the second place? Well, the author, who also wrote the best-selling memoir of childhood, "*Where Did You Go?*" "*Out.*" "*What Did You Do?*" "*Nothing.*" remembers, and he has set it down for all to see, these things and many others—like rubber-band guns, and slings, and clamshell bracelets, and the collection, care, and use of horse-chestnuts. This is a book to free your kid from the toils of the organization child, a handbook on the avoidance of boredom, a primer on the uses of solitude, a child's declaration of independence. It tells "How to do nothing with nobody all alone by yourself"—real things, fascinating things, the things that you did when you were a kid. It's a book for kids, but parents are not prohibited from reading it.

SNYDER, L. L. *The First Book of World War I*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Avenue. 1958. 96 pp. \$1.95. "Outwardly, Europe seemed more calm in 1914 than she had been for centuries."

Then, in the little province of Bosnia, in Central Europe, a ragged young patriot fired two shots. Both found their marks. Tempers flared. The outward calm of a continent inwardly seething with rivalry, suspicion, and arrogant nationalism was shattered. Before the young assassin was even brought to trial, Europe was plunged into a conflict that engulfed the world.

A famous authority on recent European history tells the exciting and terrible story of "the war to end wars" and the tragic "peace" that followed it. This is a book to read for an understanding not only of World War I, but of the greater war for which it set the stage.

The simple but dramatic text is profusely illustrated with photographs.

SNYDER, L. R. *Elements of Business Mathematics for Colleges*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St. 1958. 259 pp. \$3.75. Here is a simple, easily understandable text which will provide the reader with a basic knowledge and an employable skill in the arithmetic computations necessary for a successful business career. Only problems that are practical in nature—problems that occur constantly in business and personal life are included in this book.

Current business practice is followed in all of the fields that are covered: in banking, in insurance, in retailing, in business statements, and in computing depreciation according to the latest federal tax requirements, etc. Many examples are included in the text presentation and a large number of busi-

ness forms are illustrated both in the text presentation and in the exercises.

Although the author has designed this book for those who have only a scanty mathematical background and a limited amount of time to devote to this subject, he does not "write down" to the student, but uses an approach on a sufficiently mature level to challenge the reader's interest.

The Student Workbook which is available to accompany the text contains 67 assignments that very closely parallel the 67 exercises in the text. The assignments consist of problems similar in wording, in difficulty, and in number of problems to those found in the text exercises.

Students of post high school level—anyone in business will find a sound review of arithmetic and its practical application in solving the most frequently occurring types of problems in business and personal finance in this concise, basic book.

SOULE, GEORGE. *The Shape of Tomorrow*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 144 pp. 35¢. This is a "preview" of what is ahead for Americans in the next twenty-five years—a look at some of the basic inventions and innovations that may change our life, our work, and our leisure.

STEWART, MARY. *Thunder on the Right*. New York 16: M. S. Mill Co., Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 284 pp. \$3.50. Set in the wild, upper reaches of the French Pyrenees, this is a novel of atmosphere and character by an author who finds herself so at home in France that every aspect of the country comes alive as her eerie story unfolds.

A sheltered English girl, Jennifer Silver, has come to the remote Convent of Our Lady of the Storms to persuade her recently widowed cousin, Gillian Lamartine, not to become a nun.

The Convent, nestling in a tiny valley against sombre, brooding mountains, is dedicated to orphans. The sisters, on the whole, are of simple peasant stock. Yet the chapel contains some of the finest art treasures of Europe.

Jennifer is immediately rebuffed by the coolly elegant Bursar, an imperious Spaniard who tells her, brutally, that Gillian had died weeks before in an auto accident. Yet subsequent talks with the nuns and with the gentle, blind old lady who is Mother Superior lead Jennifer to believe—to hope—that Gillian may be alive somewhere and well.

STRANG, RUTH, and AMELIA MELNIK. *Teen-Age Tales*, Book 6. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Ave. 1958. \$2.56. *Teen-Age Tales* set the stage for reading ability to catch up with social maturity. The interest level is kept intriguingly high (by Book 6 the boy-girl relationship is on a fairly grown-up plane), but the reading level is still fifth-sixth grade. The problems and situations involved are those of typical teen-agers of today. In the stories teen-age readers see themselves as they are and as they would like to be.

STUART, D. M. *London Through the Ages*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., 300 Fourth Ave. 1958. 238 pp. \$3.50. The author writes of the triumph and tragedy which have shaped London through the ages with all the life and grace and humor the events deserve. Emphasizing the daily life of the Londoners themselves, she traces the cultural and historical forces which have played upon them—as citizens of Londinium under the Roman occupation and the dark period of barbaric invasion until the dawn of Christianity; as merchants watching the growth of economic power, civic

freedom and dynastic tradition under the Norman kings; as rebels against misrule, and the resulting Magna Carta; as Elizabethans emerging from a medieval city under their adored Tudor queen; as Puritan reformers; as leaders of the Industrial Revolution; as confident Victorians; and survivors under the threat and destruction of two World Wars.

STUART, E. R., and E. D. GIBSON. *Typing Employment Tests*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1958. 110 pp. \$1.68. This book is designed to prepare students for job entrance to business, industry, and Civil and Merit Service typing positions. It is based upon a survey of business, industry, and Civil and Merit Service practices throughout the United States. The suggestions and samples of material received were made the basis of all typing tests in this book. The directions to students are instructions given in tests which were received.

It has been so written that it is largely self-teaching and self-explanatory. If the teacher finds it impossible to administer all the tests under actual test conditions, each student can administer his own tests.

The Teacher's Manual explains why this book was written and how it was built, where and when to use the tests, and the function of the teacher in preparing students for job-employment tests. In addition, it gives suggestions for administering specific kinds of tests and for scoring and grading tests and discusses how to build test-taking skill.

SUMMERS, J. L. *Sons of Montezuma*. Philadelphia 7: The Westminster Press, Witherspoon Building. 1958. 192 pp. \$2.95. This book follows the march of General Winfield Scott's army from Vera Cruz to Mexico City during the Mexican War—a campaign about which very little has been written.

Private Jack Ransome, of the United States Army, a true-to-life, though fictional hero created for this story, is put ashore with ten thousand other men at Vera Cruz on March 9, 1847 . . . in the first amphibious landing in American history. General Scott, a magnificent "soldier's general," orders a "copybook siege" instead of an assault, and as a result, only nineteen Americans are killed as Vera Cruz falls.

Under discipline for breaking rules, Private Ransome is ordered on a scouting party and becomes embroiled in the furious battle of Cerro Gordo. After the fighting, his brigade moves on to Perote prison, and then to Puebla, where sickness, death, and other unexpected hardships make this a low point in the campaign. But from here, the American cause builds up through crisis after crisis, culminating in a showdown with the powerful forces of the Mexican dictator, Santa Anna.

SYMONDS, G. W. D. *The Tree Identification Book*. New York 16: M. Barrows and Co., Inc., 425 4th Ave. 1958. 272 pp. (8½" x 11"). \$10. The author presents a method for practical identification based on details seen by the eye, a system that can be put to immediate use by anyone young or old, inexperienced or experienced.

The book is divided into two parts: *Pictorial Keys*, designed for genus identification, and *Master Pages* for species identification.

In the *Pictorial Keys*, such features as leaves, flowers, fruit are grouped in separate sections each forming a Key. Within each Key, these features are arranged for easy reference. For example, leaves with similar details are seen next to each other, so that they can be compared and their differences easily

noted. Under each picture of a specific detail in the Keys is a number which refers to a Master Page.

The *Master Pages* bring together all the details of any given tree, including a picture of the whole tree. Whenever a particular genus, such as Oak, includes two or more species, these are shown together to contrast their differences.

Throughout, all photographic details are actual size or, when not, similar details are always reproduced in the same scale.

TAYLOR, DAVID. *Sycamore Men*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., East Washington Sq. 1958. 386 pp. \$3.95. In this stirring novel of the Revolution in the southern states, the author continues his re-creation of the War of Independence, so vividly begun in *Lights Across the Delaware* and *Farewell to Valley Forge*.

Here he turns from the ordeals of General Washington and his army to the legendary Francis Marion and his nondescript troops of South Carolina. Untrained, poorly equipped, with nothing but valor, daring and endurance, the Sycamore men saved the southern flank under the superb leadership of the "Swamp Fox."

No more colorful figure than General Marion emerged from the war. One incredible feat after another marked his ceaseless drive against the British. The action sweeps from the disastrous defeat at Camden to Kings Mountain and Eutaw Springs.

And in it all are the women of the South, particularly Jewel May Ward, sweetheart of Colonel Dixon Blakely, commander of the Irregular Cavalry. Their romance develops under the incessant tensions of guerilla warfare, in which Jewel's aid is of critical importance in harassment of the enemy and the final victory.

TURNGREN, ELLEN. *Shadows into Mist*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 111 pp. \$3. Here is a real picture of Americans-to-be finding their place in the new land—immigrants to Minnesota in the 1880's. Pretty, spirited, warm-hearted Lovisa Lund, wanting only to keep a shining house in happiness, is disappointed at first in the America for which she had yearned, and humiliated by some of the neighbors' scorn of "dumb Swedes," though immigrants themselves from other countries.

Ambitious Nils Enberg, already proficient in English, believing in his own strength, rejects the good old ways of Sweden and instead wants everything the Americans have—he'll break the land, fight back the wilderness, and one day people will listen to him as they now listen to old Barnes. Going to keep house for Nils' invalid mother, who complains and gives orders, for nothing pleases her, Lovisa finds all pleasure in the tasks taken from her.

VILLIERS, ALAN. *The New Mayflower*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Ave. 1958. 48 pp. \$2.95. The author was Captain of the new *Mayflower*, and brought her over from England to America in 1957. In this book we make the voyage with him and his crew on the second *Mayflower*, and find out much about the ship.

After having read about his voyage, with only 33 aboard we wonder how over a hundred men, women and children were crowded into the original *Mayflower*.

The jacket and cover of the book show the new *Mayflower* under full sail, and a very beautiful ship she is. The cross-sections of the two ships in the book tell more about them—and explain the different parts of the ships.

The author has sailed a number of square-riggers and is now one of the few men who knows how to sail such a ship. He sailed the *Joseph Conrad* around the world.

VITTORINI, DOMENICO. *High Points in the History of Italian Literature*. New York 3: David McKay Co., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 317 pp. \$4.75. This collection of essays deals, as the title indicates, with the most outstanding points of Italian literature. Its parts are chronologically arranged, and they span the development of the literature of Italy from Dante to Benedetto Croce, Luigi Pirandello, and other twentieth-century writers.

Several of the essays bear on Dante: his contribution to aesthetics, the historical reality of the *Dolce Stil Nuovo*, Dante and courtly language, lights and shadows in the *Vita Nuova*, and Dante's concept of love. Among writers and subjects discussed in other essays are Francesca da Rimini, Areentino and humanism, realistic elements in Tasso's *Aminta*, realism during the romantic age, the modern Italian drama, and the development of the Italian novel.

VON BUDDENBROCK, WOLFGANG. *The Senses*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1958. 167 pp. \$4. Here is an authoritative guide through the most elaborate and fascinating communication system in the world.

All that we know of the world about us we learn through our senses. All that we think and feel—all that we are—is in some way the result of our senses. The machinery that guides man and the other animals on their way through the world is often unbelievably complex, often amusing, always a source of wonder.

In words and picture we learn about animals that see with their backs; taste with their feet; smell with their tongues; or read with their skins. Examples ranging from the sublime to the ridiculous show us how the eight senses—and others we didn't know existed—work in man, bird, insect, beast, and in the very lowest forms of life.

WALLACE, CARLTON, compiler. *The Treasury of Games and Puzzles*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th St. 1958. 256 pp. \$6. This comprehensive book is the answer to a difficult parental problem. Children quickly become absorbed in the puzzles and games described therein, so that "how to keep them occupied" or "what to do at the party" no longer presents any difficulty. Among the many suggestions are puzzles with coins, numbers and matches; word puzzles, crosswords and secret codes; brain twisters; pencil and paper games; optical illusions; party games and party magic; and acting games.

The compiler also suggests games for out-of-doors (such as Garden Athletics and Find the Largest!) and ends with instructions on how to produce a play.

The final chapter gives solutions to all the puzzles.

WALLBANK, T. W. *A Short History of India and Pakistan*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1958. 320 pp. 50¢. This book presents the political, economic, and social forces, and events which have shaped modern India and Pakistan.

WALLBANK, T. W., and ARNOLD FLETCHER. *Living World History*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Company, 433 E. Erie St. 1958. 768 pages, including 118 spot maps and charts. \$4.88. World history is a difficult subject for most students, and this new text appears to have been made as readable and easy to understand as possible. Its style is simple, direct, and informal,

with new words and ideas carefully developed. Its two-column pages and large type invite reading. Its boldface subheads should help students keep on the track in getting the main ideas in each chapter. The wealth of illustrations and quoted materials add interest and offer changes of pace. Here's a text that seems to have the broad scope and thorough coverage which the true world-history course demands—and at the same time maintains the readability and interest so important in making the course "take" with high-school students. Varied study aids appear regularly throughout the text, adding to the concrete help it offers for a difficult subject. Each chapter is divided into assignment-length sections followed by comprehension questions, helping students clinch important facts as they go along. Then at the end of each chapter, the "Reviewing Stand" summarizes chapter developments; and "Headlines of the Past" exercises help review people, places, events, and vocabulary.

Students need more than review, of course, to master world history. They must understand time and place relationships, know how to read maps, discover cause-and-effect relationships and connections between the past and today. This book makes provision for the development of such skills. Each unit opener includes a two-page overview, time line, and often a map that help students pull together the developments in different parts of the world within a given time. End-of-chapter thought questions and "time-place" quizzes help cement these relationships in their minds. Other exercises help in showing how past events shed light on present-day developments. At the end of each unit, a special "Geographic Setting" section helps them see the importance of geography in the history they've just studied. Enriching the text material on almost every page—and adding to its appeal for teen-age readers—are time lines, spot maps, charts and graphs, photographs and cartoons, many of them in color. There is also a 15-page, full-color map section at the front of the book.

WELLMAN, M. W. *The Ghost Battalion*. New York 3: Ives Washburn, Inc., 55 Fifth Ave. 1958. 185 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of dashing, young Clay Buckner from North Carolina and his many adventures as an Iron Scout with General Jeb Stuart's cavalry. After joining this unique group of Confederate cavalymen, Clay takes part in exceedingly important and exciting work with the other Iron Scouts at the Rappahannock and Chancellorsville, matches wits with a Northern spy, and meets a beautiful Southern girl who believes there are two sides to this War Between the States.

The Scouts do very effective work behind the scenes, are able to move about in fascinating guises with almost unbelievable skill and courage. Clay, a brave novice at first, soon proves himself to be one of the most resourceful Scouts in carrying out his missions. Strangely enough, he finds the spirited Southern girl almost more difficult to handle than the Northern men in blue.

WHITE, T. H. *The Mountain Road*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 425 Fourth Ave. 1958. 349 pp. \$3.95. The time is 1944. The setting: East China in flames. The characters: a New England major with his first command—a tough and surly American demolition unit isolated in the great China retreat of that turbulent year; Su-Piao, a strange and beautiful Chinese woman, educated in America, who must join them over his protest; and Kwan, a frosty Chinese general who loves his country but must help ravage it.

The story of their adventures in one violent week on the only road into the mountains marks the author's emergence as a major novelist.

This is the week in which Major Philip Baldwin grasps power and command. Baldwin is the classic desk man in civilian life, the classic staff major in army life—planning actions for other men to sweat out. But for this one week Baldwin has the job of delaying the Japanese advance.

WILLIAMS, BERYL, and SAMUEL EPSTEIN. *The Rocket Pioneers*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 W. 40th St. 1958. 255 pp. \$3.75. No one will ever be able to list all the rocket pioneers of the past. But there are certain men who will probably always be remembered—men whose genius erected notable way stations along the mounting road of rocket progress. Not all of them were aiming directly toward what has come to be the recognized goal of most rocketeers today. Some were simply building a bigger and better sky-rocket; some were trying to build rocket weapons. But a surprising number of the men who spent their lives making skyrockets to amuse children, or rocket bombs for the destruction of an enemy nation, were nevertheless in their own minds working toward that day when rockets would provide man with a means of transportation into the vast realms of space.

Of course there are men working with rockets today who might still be grouped among the pioneers. Some of them, in fact—and Wernher von Braun is probably the most obvious example—who were outstanding in the truly pioneering days of the field are now playing outstanding roles in these days of the space rocket's maturity. The fact that Von Braun was still a young man when he watched the American *Explorer* take off on its historic orbiting flight, dramatically illustrates the enormously rapid development of rocketry during the quarter century that ended in 1957.

WILLIAMS, ERIC. *The Wooden Horse*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 256 pp. \$3.50. In 1943, two British officers, with the help of their fellow-prisoners, made a wooden horse (quite different from the wooden horse made by the Greeks) and by means of it, escaped with a third soldier, from a German prison camp.

The escape from the camp itself is only part of the story. Once outside the barbed wire, the three were still faced with the problem of getting out of Germany. They had many adventures and many narrow escapes. Time after time they were nearly caught. But eventually they made it back to England.

After they returned to England, the three escapees were decorated with the Military Cross. But all the others who cooperated—other prisoners and all the French and Danes—deserved medals, too.

WILSON, E. S., and C. A. BUCHER. *College Ahead!* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1958. 197 pp. \$3.95. Here is a calm, sensible guide to help high-school students and their parents who are troubled by the deluge of gloomy predictions about a problem hundreds of thousands of them face each year—how to get into college.

The problem begins not with a college application in the senior year of high school, but with the question, which should be asked earlier: "Should I go to college?" Eugene S. Wilson and Charles A. Bucher, authorities on college admission, discuss first how a student can assess his talents and his interests, appraise intelligence and aptitude tests, evaluate public-school and private school preparation, and decide whether college is for him. "Can I pay my way?" is the next dilemma, and the authors list probable costs of going to college, and the procedures and standards for obtaining scholarships and loans. The differences among colleges are explored frankly, and the student is instructed how and when to apply, how to visit a college and complete a successful in-

terview. "How good are my chances for admission?" The answers to this perplexing problem are given with candor and common sense, free of an air of panic. *College Ahead!*, which also provides useful advice on the first days in college (how to get along with faculty and roommates, how to keep up morale), is a practical, personal, and comprehensive manual.

WILSON, SLOAN. *A Summer Place*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Ave. 1958. 378 pp. \$4.50. The summer place from which this novel takes its title is an island off the coast of Maine. It is beautiful in summer. It is terrifying in winter—as though, when the summer people are away, their icy snobberies, their fears of committing social errors remain to haunt the empty beaches.

On this island, one summer, Ken Jorgenson and Sylvia Raymond meet. They are very young, and passionately attracted to each other. But both are outsiders, confused by the island's rigid caste life. And in their confusion they part in anger.

The story of what happens to them and to the people they marry and to their children, who years later meet on the island, is the central thread of a novel about how marriages are made on earth—some out of fear, some out of pride, some out of desperation. And some, when there is strength and self-knowledge, out of love.

WINGATE, PETER. *Doctor Tom*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 425 Fourth Ave. 1958. 284 pp. \$3.75. Tom Bailey was a talented, if inexperienced, young doctor. This is the story of his first assignment in Africa.

He has full charge of a vast territory where the natives take a dim view of anyone who is not a witch doctor and, when he arrives, he is as ignorant of African ways as the witch doctors themselves are of modern medicine.

What happens during Doctor Tom's first months of residence makes lively reading; so vivid, indeed, that you may almost think it autobiographical at times.

Every page has the humor, the detail, the everyday happenings that can only come from personal experience. So it follows that the author is himself a doctor who has practiced in Africa. Luckily, he is blessed with a genius for narrative, a warm sensitivity, a gift for laughing at himself that make these people and places come alive immediately. Whether he is doing his first Caesarian by lamplight or moving whole villages to prevent the spread of sleeping sickness, Doctor Tom is the kind of man it's a joy to find in any novel.

Love—yes—in various guises. A predatory nurse is sent to the remote outpost of Magoli, and Doctor Tom is only human. It takes the machinations of a friend older and wiser than he to get him squared away. And when he finally meets his own true love, he is as obtuse as many another eager young man who can't see the forest for the trees.

WORCESTER, DONALD. *Lone Hunter's First Buffalo Hunt*. New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc. 1958. 87 pp. \$2.75. Lone Hunter could hardly wait for the great fall hunt to begin. Through his bravery and courage he had earned the chance to go on the great hunt for the first time. But the Oglalas could not find a buffalo herd, though the Medicine Man's dream seemed clear enough.

No one would listen to Lone Hunter and his friend Buffalo Boy. They had seen signs of a herd one day. And Lone Hunter had dreamed of the place where a herd could be found. Time was growing short. Unless the hunt began

soon, the tribe would not have enough robes and food to last them through the winter.

Narrow escapes and thrilling adventures mark Lone Hunter's story, as he and Buffalo Boy set out to solve the problem.

WYSNER, G. M. *Caught in the Middle*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1958. 126 pp. \$2.95. This book opens to the reader many facets of life in the area. The background of Arab nationalism and the establishment of a Jewish homeland are explained in easily understood, impartial terms. A brief history of the origin of each of the monotheistic faiths, founded in the area—Judaism, Christianity, and Islam—is also given.

In the section, Birth Makes the Difference, the author discusses the "millet system" in which birth largely determines the whole course of a Middle Easterner's life. Even though "what a birth certificate says may speak louder than a diploma," education is considered the magic key by many Middle East youth who seek to unlock the door of the dilemma in which they find themselves caught. The author discusses vividly the place of education in the Middle East and the pioneer role of Christian missionaries in education.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Annual Statistical Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1956-1957. Cincinnati, Ohio: Office of Superintendent, Cincinnati Public Schools. 1958 (May). 48 pp. General information about the school system.

Anti-Recession Policy for 1958. New York City 22: Committee for Economic Development, 711 Fifth Avenue. 1958 (March). 30 pp. 20¢. This statement deals with the policies that the Committee for Economic Development believes the Federal government should follow in 1958 to aid economic recovery.

Are the Child Labor Laws To Blame for Juvenile Delinquency? The American Child, Vol. 40, No. 3. New York City 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue. 1958 (May). 14 pp. 50¢. This is a summary of the charges against the laws, a careful review of pertinent research, and conclusions about what needs to be done about delinquents and work.

Armed Forces Films for Public and Television Use. Washington 25, D. C.: Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Audio-Visual Division, Room 2E791, Pentagon. 1958. 100 pp. Armed Forces motion pictures listed are available, without charge, for public non-profit exhibition.

ARMSTRONG, W. C. *Soviet Economic Challenge to U. S. Policy*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. (March). 18 pp. 10¢. Address made before the Southern Illinois Manufacturers Association at St. Louis, Missouri, on January 17.

Awards—Television, Films, Radio, Children's Books and Comic Books. New York City 18: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 21 pp. The Edison Foundation in cooperation with sixty-two national organizations has established the Awards Program to encourage improved quality in the mass media, especially for juvenile audiences and to interest boys and girls in science and in scientific and engineering careers.

BAUER, W. W. and F. V. HEIN. *Exercise and Health, A Point of View*. Chicago 10: American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street. 1958. 12 pp. This pamphlet is concerned with only one of the many factors involved in fitness, specifically, the role of exercise in modern living. As such it offers

a compendium of authoritative opinion—and a summary of research relating to the contributions of exercise to overall fitness.

BAYLES, ERNEST E. *Education for Democracy. Kansas Studies in Education. Vol. 8, No. 2.* Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas. 1958 (May). 32 pp. Democracy is defined and implications of this definition for education are presented.

The Beginning Teacher, Circular No. 510. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. 1958. 56 pp. A preliminary report of a survey of the new teachers in the public schools.

BETTS, E. A. *Parents and Teachers Want To Know About Reading.* Haverford, Pennsylvania: The Betts Reading Clinic, Publications Department, 257 West Montgomery Avenue. 1958. 11 pp. 60¢. Facts about retardation and differences among children. Aids to learning and the three essentials for reading are discussed.

BLOUGH, R. M. *When People Profit.* New York City 6: Public Relations Department, United States Steel Corporation, 71 Broadway. 1958. 17 pp. This is an address given before the Automotive Parts Manufacturers Association in Detroit on January 31, 1958. Available at the same address is *A Talk of Two Towns*. This is an address given before the annual meeting of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce on April 17, 1958.

BRANDON, GEORGE L. *Twin Cities Technicians.* East Lansing: College of Education, Michigan State University. 1958. 70 pp. A dual-purpose research report giving a limited survey of industrial technicians and a trial run of a state-wide interview instrument.

California Schools. Sacramento 14, California: State Education Building, 721 Capitol Avenue. 1958 (May). 77 pp. Official publication of public instruction issued monthly by the state department of education.

Cardiovascular Diseases in the U. S. Facts and Figures. New York 10: American Heart Association, 44 East 23 Street. 1958 (March). 15 pp. This booklet of charts answers some of the most common questions about cardiovascular disease statistics.

Choosing Appropriate Techniques. Philadelphia: Philadelphia Public Schools, Consulting Teachers Curriculum Office. 1958 (February). 38 pp. The greatest weakness of the average beginning teacher seems to be that he fails to recognize the importance of lesson planning, and consequently fails to make the detailed plans so necessary for good teaching. Although the ability to do good planning may come with experience, it is possible to give beginning teachers many suggestions that will increase their effectiveness immediately. That is the purpose of this pamphlet.

The Civil War at a Glance. Madison 1, Wisconsin: Americana Press, 2105 Sherman Avenue. 1958. 21 pp. Other booklets from the same source are: *The American Realm—How Our Country Grew*; *The Supreme Court of the United States*; *Documents of Freedom*; and *Our Great Presidents*.

Compare the Cost. Washington 6, D. C.: Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958. 15 pp. Copies available at 10 for \$1 or 100 for \$5. Comparative prices of schooling, defense, homes, drinking, etc.

Dental Aptitude Testing Program. Chicago 11: American Dental Association, 222 East Superior Street. 1958. 15 pp. This brochure has been prepared to provide candidates for freshman dental classes with information on predental requirements, the professional course of study and the procedure to

be followed in applying for the dental aptitude tests. Each candidate for dental school should read this brochure carefully in order to familiarize himself with the type of preparation needed for the study of dentistry as well as the procedure to be followed in completing an application for taking the dental aptitude tests. Other pamphlets from the same source are *Dental Hygiene Aptitude Testing Program and Careers in Dentistry*.

DEUTSCH, ALBERT. *The World Health Organization—Its Global Battle Against Disease*. New York City 16: Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street. 1958. 20 pp. 25¢. This pamphlet is one of a series published by the Public Affairs Committee, a nonprofit educational organization founded in 1935 "to develop new techniques to educate the American public on vital economic and social problems and to issue concise and interesting pamphlets dealing with such problems, derived wherever possible from the long-time studies of leading research institutes."

DUKELOW, D. D. *Historical Glimpses at Fitness Promotion*. Chicago 10: American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street. 1958. 6 pp. An outline of the objectives of the fitness program is included.

DULLES, JOHN FOSTER. *The Lessons of Berlin*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 6 pp. This address was given at a reception given in Mr. Dulles' honor by the Berlin City Government, Berlin, Germany, May 8, 1958.

_____. *Our Changing World*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 6 pp. This address was given at the Statehood Day Ceremonies of the Minnesota Statehood Centennial.

EARLY, MARGARET J.; CONSTANCE M. McCULLOUGH; JOHN J. DeBOER; and HELEN HANLON. *What We Know About High School Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: The National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street. 1958. 52 pp. 50¢. A series of four reprints from the *ENGLISH JOURNAL* with an introduction by M. Agnella Gunn. This is a practical and illuminating pamphlet on the subject of teaching high-school students to read. The latest research and materials are used.

_____. *Economic Growth in the United States, Its Past and Future*. New York City 22: The Committee for Economic Development, 711 Fifth Avenue. 1958 (February). 63 pp. A statement on national policy by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development.

_____. *Education Television Today*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Educational Television and Radio Center, 2320 Washtenaw Avenue. 1958. 18 pp. A review of the program service offered by ETV.

ELLER, FRANK W. *A Guide to Engineering Education. A Science Manpower Project Monograph*. New York City 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1958. 45 pp. \$1. This monograph is designed to serve certain guidance needs of secondary-school students who are interested in various types of engineering and technological careers. The initiative in supplying guidance probably will be the responsibility of secondary-school science teachers for the most part. These teachers are called upon to advise students as to (a) the different types of engineering; (b) institutions where specific types of engineering training may be obtained; (c) the probable success of individual candidates in engineering education or technological work; and (d) high school courses which may make a contribution to probable success. Here is an effort to supply these types of information.

EMERY, DONALD W. *Variant Spellings in Modern American Dictionaries*. Champaign, Illinois: The National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street. 1958. 43 pp. 75¢. A concise record of how modern dictionaries are recognizing variant spellings.

Entertainment Catalog. St. Louis 5: Swank Motion Pictures, 621 North Skinker. 1958. 33 pp. This is the 1958 edition of the catalog listing entertainment 16 mm sound films. Other catalogs include: *Educational Film*; *Religious Film*; *Filmstrip*; and *Equipment*.

The Evolution of the Report Card Now Being Used. San Bernardino, California: City Secondary Schools. 1958. 6 pp. This pamphlet was prepared by a committee to tell how the question, "What are we going to tell the parents," is answered.

The Ford Foundation and St. Louis. New York City 22: The Ford Foundation, 477 Madison Avenue. 1958. 64 pp. This is one of a series of booklets on activities supported by the Ford Foundation. The purpose is to present a general, nontechnical account for a wide audience of some phase of the Foundation's work.

Foreign Aspects of U. S. National Security. Washington 6, D. C.: International Economic Growth, 1300 Connecticut Avenue, N.W. 1958 (April). 120 pp. A conference report and proceedings. *Part One*, a Summary Report, gives the background, outlines the general trend of the discussion and some of the factual material, and quotes statements that highlight main points made by the speakers. *Part Two* gives the full text of the addresses, beginning with that of President Eisenhower, which actually followed the dinner at the end of the day's session.

Part Three gives a somewhat condensed record of the afternoon question-and-answer panel headed by Vice President Nixon. It also contains a brief account of the panel on Post Conference Education, which concluded with the adoption of a motion recommending formation of an independent citizens' committee to encourage discussion and stimulate a further flow of information about the Mutual Security Program. *Part Four* gives the order of events in the day's program, and lists those who participated and those who assisted Mr. Johnston in organizing the Conference.

FOSTER, H. S. *High School Students and United States Foreign Policy*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958 (March). 10 pp. 10¢. Address made before the Social Studies Club of Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D. C., on January 15.

GEE, JOHN E. *Tall Oaks and Little Acorns—A Guide for School Board Members*. Columbus 14, Ohio: Ohio School Boards Association, 3752 North High Street. 1958. 79 pp. \$1.50; 5 or more copies, 20% discount. This guide provides valuable information for new members of boards of education and will also be of interest to experienced members in the evaluation of their boards' operations. It is an excellent booklet to make available to people in the communities to familiarize them with the way in which boards conduct their business of operating schools.

Girl Scout of the United States of America, Annual Report, 1957. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 101 pp. 35¢. Activities of the organization are described.

GOLDWIN, R. A., Editor. *Toward the Liberally Educated Executive*. White Plains, New York: The Fund for Adult Education, 200 Bloomingdale Road. 1957. 111 pp. This booklet is designed to illustrate three propositions which are fundamental to an understanding of the education of executives in our time.

Guidance Aids for a Stronger America, Our World of Flight Series. Washington 6, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue, N.W. 1958. 83 pp. 75¢. Instructional aids for an aviation education project prepared by the Illinois Curriculum Program. Included also is a monograph entitled *Careers in Aviation*.

Handbook on Parent Education, revised by Milton Babitz. Bulletin of the State Department of Education, Vol. XXVII, No. 3. Sacramento, California: Bureau of Adult Education. 1958 (May). 55 pp. A guide for developing, expanding, and strengthening parent education programs.

HANSON, HALDORE. *A Report from New Delhi: Should the U. S. Extend Emergency Credits to India?* Washington 3, D. C.: Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Avenue, S.E. 1958. 21 pp. 15¢. Here are the essential facts which American citizens require in forming a judgment on future American-Indian relations.

HEATH, MONROE. *Over 48 States at a Glance. The Great American Series, Vol. 6*. Redwood City, California: Pacific Coast Publishers. 1958. 64 pp. This volume presents in brief and separately for every State and other territorial possession of the United States, the significant historical episodes, chief economic resources, and principal geographic features.

HECHINGER, FRED M. *Worrying About College?* Pamphlet No. 266. New York City 16: Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street. 1958 25¢. A concise and interesting coverage of what must be considered in regard to college entrance.

HEFFERMAN, HELEN and CHARLES BURSCH. *Curriculum and the Elementary School Plant*. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958. 71 pp. \$1.50. The recent thinking involved in elementary-school plant planning and construction is assembled and collated in this booklet.

Helping Economic Development in Asia and the Far East. New York City: United Nations, Department of Public Information. 1958. 34 pp. 15¢. The work of the ECAFE explained in some detail.

Helping South East Asia To Help Itself. New York City: United Nations, Department of Public Information. 1958. 60 pp. 25¢. Contents include: The background; an Indian river is harnessed; a research institute in Ceylon; social welfare in Pakistan; economic survey of Vietnam; better houses in tropical Asia; snows and snowmen in Nepal; helping Burma's industries; statistical training in the Philippines; and a selected bibliography.

HELTMAN, HARRY J. and HELEN A. BROWN. *Great Bible Stories for the Verse Speaking Choir*. Philadelphia 7: The Westminster Press, Witherspoon Building. 1958. 64 pp. Single copy, \$1; 5 or more, 90¢. The author-editors of this noteworthy collection have given careful and discriminating attention to all the details of meaning and mood, climax and cadence. With such an available anthology of worthy materials at hand choirs will want to enhance their repertoire with verse.

HOCK, LOUISE E. *Using Committees in the Classroom*. New York City 16: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 232 Madison Avenue. 1958. 55 pp. \$1. This pamphlet, by applying the latest idea to a specific problem, bridges the gap between educational theory and practice.

Human Rights. U. S. National Commission for UNESCO. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. 1954. 24 pp. A guide book for community leaders. Other pamphlets available from the same source are *Questions and Answers About UNESCO*; *How Children Learn About Human Rights*; and *Human Rights Day, A Guide Book for Community Programs*.

HUTCHINS, C. D.: MUNSE, A. R.: and BOOHER, E. D. *School Finance and School Business Management*. Washington 24, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Printing Office. 1958. 78 pp. 60¢. One of the series of status studies on responsibilities and services of State departments of education.

Improving Communication, Intercom Vol. 2, No. 2. New York City 19: Board of Education, The Junior High Schools. 1958 (June). 68 pp. The chief aim of this publication is to act as an exchange of supervisory practices.

Improving Science Programs in Illinois Schools. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 204 Gregory Hall. 1958. 87 pp. These are the speeches that were given at the science education conference on April 11 and 12, 1958.

The In-Service Training of Science Teachers. New York City 19: Board of Education of the City of New York, 130 West 55th Street. 1958. 68 pp. A report of out-of-license teachers of general science in New York City.

Jamaica High School Students' Handbook, Howard L. Hurwitz and Joseph Mersand, Editors. Jamaica 32, New York: G. O. Store, Junior High School, 168th Street and Gothic Drive. 1958. 157 pp. \$1. The handbook is designed to help students adjust more readily to traditions and regulations.

JASPER, A. W. *The Poultry Industry, No. 95, Vocational and Professional Monographs*. Cambridge 38, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Company. 1958. 36 pp. \$1. This monograph is for use in guidance activities and counseling work. Factual information is included on: History of the occupation or industry; qualifications for employment; training required; methods of entry; opportunities for advancement; earnings; general trends in the occupation or industry; and sources of further information.

JOHNSON, WILLARD and ELEANOR COLEMAN. *Student Responsibility in Higher Education*. Philadelphia 7: United States National Student Association, 1234 Gimbel Building. 1958. 72 pp. A guide to campus programming. The purpose of this Workbook is to present a summary of the needs of higher education with specific suggestions as to how students can most effectively meet these needs. The Workbook is designed to serve as a guide for initiating programs similar to those outlined, beginning with a campus workshop that will evaluate the institution's problems and determine the best measures to be taken for improvement. The principles for setting up such a workshop are set forth in the latter section of the book.

JUDKINS, H. F. *The Dairy Industry, No. 83, Vocational and Professional Monographs*. Cambridge 38, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Company. 1958. 18 pp. \$1. This monograph is for use in guidance activities and counseling work. Factual information is included on: history of the occupation or industry; qualifications for employment; training required;

methods of entry; opportunities for advancement; earnings; general trends in the occupation or industry; and sources of further information.

Lending Library of Audio-Visual Material. 1958-59 Catalogue. New York City 21: French American Cultural Services and Educational Aid, 972 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 83 pp. This society prepares and distributes materials for classroom use. It functions as a lending library, serving schools, universities, libraries, museums, and educational organizations. Teaching aids from the library are designed for use in French language and civilization courses and also in art, social studies and science courses, wherever France is the subject of study. The choice of material is based on the expressed needs of teachers in American schools, and all teaching aids are prepared in co-operation with advisory committees made up of teachers on all levels. The criticism of teachers is invited, as are suggestions concerning new subjects or new uses for material now in circulation.

Library Journal, Volume 83, No. 8. New York City 36: R. R. Bowker Company, 62 West 45th Street. 1958 (April 15). 50¢. This issue contains an index to new paperbounds.

LONI, L. G. *How To Develop and Maintain an Inexpensive Reference File.* Honolulu, Hawaii: Division of Vocational Education, Department of Public Instruction. 1958. 86 pp. This bulletin is designed to assist schools in developing and maintaining an occupational information reference file as part of their total guidance program, in order to help students make more intelligent decisions in educational and vocational planning.

LORETAN, JOSEPH O. *A Program of Education for the Junior High School Intercom, Vol. 2, No. 1.* New York City 19: Board of Education, The Junior High Schools. 1958 (April). 11 pp. A special issue of *Intercom* to devote all of its pages to this address given at the annual convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals on February 17, 1958 at Indianapolis, Indiana.

MAC BEAN, D. W. *Your Career as a Librarian.* Chicago 11: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 425 North Michigan Avenue. 1958. 18 pp. A recruiting pamphlet for initial distribution to prospects for librarianship and on occasions such as Career Days.

MAUL, RAY C. *Class Size in the Elementary Schools of Urban School Districts, 1957-1958. Special Memo, Research Division.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958 (April). 19 pp. 50¢. The data presented in this report comprise the evidence needed by administrators, teachers, and other educational workers to support their plea for improvement. Facts—hard facts—must be used to back up the call for more teachers and for more classrooms to house more teachers. This report is designed to furnish those facts.

_____. *Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1957-58, Research Report 1958-R 1.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958. 55 pp. \$1. Discounts on quantity orders: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more copies, 20%. This is third in the biennial series of salary reports to the professional personnel in higher education and is an informative report to all staff members. A full distribution of salaries paid to each rank in each type of institution in each geographic area is included and detailed break-downs are easily available through 49 major tables. It provides for exact compari-

sons with conditions two years ago and a working guide for both administrators and faculty councils and committees.

_____. *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools*, 1958. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958 (April). 53 pp. 75¢. This eleventh annual report examines the question of an adequate supply, the nature of the demand, the qualifications of the total corps of teachers in service. State by state tables are given for careful examination.

McMASTER, DONALD. *The Opportunities Will Be There!* Rochester 4: Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street, Public Relations Department. 1958. 4 pp. Comments on career opportunities which were made as part of a special radio broadcast.

McMILLEN, JOHN E. *What Industry Looks for in the High School Graduate*. Rochester 4: Eastman Kodak Company; 343 State Street, Public Relations Department. 1958. 8 pp. This is a talk made before a teacher group in Rochester.

Mental Health. New York City 22: Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 477 Madison Avenue. 1958. 41 pp. Free. This is one of a series of booklets on activities supported by the Ford Foundation. The purpose is to present a general, nontechnical account for a wide audience of some phase of the Foundation's work.

MIERNYK, W. H. and M. A. HOROWITZ. *Engineering Enrollment and Faculty Requirements, 1957-1967*. Urbana, Illinois: American Society for Engineering Education, University of Illinois. 1958. 59 pp. 25¢. Prepared for the Committee on Development of Engineering Faculties.

NATO and the Citizen. New York City 21: American Council on NATO, Inc., 22 East 67th Street. 1958. 60 pp. The 1957 progress report of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization of which the American Council on NATO, Inc. is a member.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. *Information Is Not Enough*. New York 22: The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. 515 Madison Avenue. 1958. 26 pp. A suggestion of all the schools must teach besides information.

Nurses and Other Hospital Personnel. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 27 pp. 15¢. This booklet summarizes the salary and employment information collected for nursing and other hospital personnel by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Women's Bureau.

Organization of America States. Washington, D. C.: Pan American Union. 1957. 211 pp. The annual report of the secretary general on the Organization activities during the period beginning July 1, 1956, and ending June 30, 1957.

Our Public Schools, Part IV. Home Economics. New York City 19: Board of Education of the City of New York, 130 West 55th Street. 1956. 27 pp. The Annual report of the superintendent of schools. At the present time the emphasis in education has been directed to the study of mathematics and the physical and biological sciences. The question has been raised about the one-sidedness of this training, and this report is a partial answer to that question.

Physicians and Schools. Edited by W. W. Baner, W. W. Bolton, D. A. Dukelow, F. U. Hein, and W. A. Wesley. Chicago 10: American Medical Association, Bureau of Health Education, 535 North Dearborn Street. 1958. 150 pp. Report of the Sixth National Conference on Physicians and Schools.

Planned Training—Your Future Security. Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, U. S. Department of Labor. 1958. 8 pp. Free. Directed to high-school students and counselors, this booklet stresses the importance of education and sound training in developing successful careers in industry. An explanation of apprentice training and its advantages to young people in equipping them for craftsmanship in the skilled trades; qualifications for apprenticeship; choosing a trade; and where to apply for training are covered in the booklet.

The Point of Beginning: The Local School District. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958. 16 pp. 50¢. Progress report of the AASA Commission on School District Reorganization.

Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools. Boston 9: National Council of Independent Schools. 1958 (May). 52 pp. This report was prepared by the Committee on Teacher Training of the NCIS.

Protecting the Health of the High School Athlete. Chicago 10: American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street. 1958. 23 pp. The members of the Committee on Injury in Sports of the American Medical Association believe that continuing medical supervision is essential to safe and healthful sports participation. Protective procedures include medical examination of players, a physician present at contests, recognition and referral of injuries, and arrangements for emergency care. Joint planning between school authorities and medical representatives is the most effective way to assure such protection.

The Committee recommends the sports injury conference as a helpful means of initiating a protective plan or of refining procedures if a program is already established. A number of conferences—state and local—have already served this purpose. This booklet has been prepared with the hope of helping other communities carry out similar conferences to the end that every athlete shall have the best possible protection for sports participation.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION. *1958 Catalog of the Test Divisions.* New York City 17: The Psychological Corporation, 304 East 35th Street. 1958. 72 pp. All kinds of test and related materials are sold as announced in this catalog. Some are publications of the Test Division.

Public Opinion Polls on American Education. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958 (May). 20 pp. Single copy, 15¢. Quantity orders are: 10 for \$1, 100 for \$5, and 1000 for \$45. Objective data to help develop perspective in this troubled and confused period of American education.

PUCE, HUGH G. *California Public Junior Colleges. Bulletin of the State Department of Education.* Sacramento 14, California: California State Printing Office. 1958 (February). 103 pp. This bulletin is planned to make available to educators and others information regarding the purposes, functions, programs, legal basis, and historical development of the locally controlled public junior colleges. It is designed, also, to provide a description of facilities, growth in enrollments, and problems of junior colleges. The role of junior

colleges in the tripartite design of California public higher education is presented.

Questions and Answers on the Mutual Security Program. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 20 pp. 15¢. Such questions as, "What is the purpose of our mutual security program?" are answered.

SCHULTZ, HENRY E. *A Decade of Progress, Civil Rights: 1947-1957.* New York 22: The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 515 Madison Avenue. 1958. 29 pp. This includes sections on Federal Legislation; Executive Action; Court Decisions; and State Legislation.

The Secondary School Teacher, Simmons College Bulletin. Boston 15: Simmons College 300 The Fenway. 1958 (May). 4 pp. This was mailed to high-school principals but may be had by guidance officers at the request of the principal.

Selected Bibliography for Curriculum Workers. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958. 49 pp. \$1. Publications included cover a broad array of topics. Material is included from those areas that curriculum specialists refer to as the Foundations, as well as books, booklets and monographs directly related to the practice of Education itself. Material from the Foundation is listed first in the bulletin, suggestive of the way in which these areas contribute facts and working hypotheses for those parts of the bulletin which follow. An attempt has been made to organize the whole bibliography in such a way as to make for efficient use.

SELIGMAN, EUSTACE and R. L. WALKER. *Should the U. S. Change Its China Policy?* New York City 17: Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 345 East 46th Street. 1958 (May-June). 78 pp. 35¢. Here are two articles expressing different views on this subject.

SILVERMAN, HIRSCH L. *Discipline, Its Psychological and Educational Aspects.* Nutley, New Jersey: Nutley Public Schools, Office of Special Services, 1958. 9 pp. Factors which cause undesirable conduct are stated and some basic considerations are given which may help teachers prevent violations of good behavior.

SMITH, NILA B. *Be a Better Reader.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. 1958. 129 pp. This book is designed (1) to develop special skills needed for effective reading in the different areas of science, social studies, arithmetic, and literature, and (2) to improve the basic common skills needed in reading all types of material. The unit topics were selected because of their appeal to teen-agers and because of their frequency of occurrence in junior high and high school textbooks. The skills are those most frequently needed in studying text and reference books at that high school level. The special vocabularies include words common to the most widely used high-school texts in science, social studies, and arithmetic. Because of these features this book should fit into and reinforce the curriculum in the average school. It can be used effectively for either remedial or developmental instruction. The *Teacher's Guide* which accompanies this book contains explanations of skills, page-by-page procedures, additional activities, and answers to all questions in the text.

Something To Steer By. Washington 6, D. C.: Committee for the Advancement of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958 (January). 12 pp. Thirty-five proposals for better preparation of school administrators.

Speech Correctionists: The Competencies They Need for the Work They Do. Bulletin 1957, No. 19. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1957. 77 pp. 45¢. This publication is one of a series resulting from the broad study, *Qualification and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children*, which since 1952 has been one of the major projects of the Office of Education. Reported here is that part of the information from the broad study which has particular bearing on the qualification and preparation of speech correction teachers.

STROM, INGRID M. *The Role of Literature in the Core Curriculum*, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. 34, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Bookstore. 1958 (May). 60 pp. \$1. In an age of scientific and technological advancement, it is almost inevitable that the importance of an intangible like the appreciation of literature is ignored or minimized. Therefore, it is imperative that the values of the study of literature be clarified and re-emphasized for teachers in core programs. This booklet attempts the task with the help of an extensive bibliography.

A Study of Ineptness and Apathy. Washington 6, D. C.: National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958 (April). 30 pp. A report of an investigation made at Hawthorne, New Jersey.

The Superior Student. Boulder, Colorado: University Honors Information Service, University of Colorado, Hellems 112. 1958 (May). 20 pp. The newsletter of the Inter-University Committee on the superior student. Published monthly during the academic year.

This Is Du Pont. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Company. 1958. 52 pp. This is the story of a small business in a small country that grew to be a big business in a big country and, in so doing, demonstrated to the world that the new doctrine of freedom was indeed the lodestone of opportunity for all men.

THOMPSON, E. E. and A. E. HAMALAINEN. *Foreign Language Teaching in Elementary Schools.* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1958. 46 pp. \$1. The authors show what is being done and also make recommendations concerning the ways in which language can be utilized in the enrichment of the elementary school curriculum without going so far as to introduce a special subject into the curriculum. Problems of method and organization are dealt with as well as implications of foreign language instruction for improving international understanding and furthering a peaceful state of affairs in the world. The recommendations provide a ready curriculum guide for anyone dealing with foreign language teaching.

United Nations Work for Human Rights. New York City: United Nations, Department of Public Information. 1958. 35 pp. 15¢. This booklet summarizes the work done and the progress made in—to quote the words of the Charter—"promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for

fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion."

UPGREW, A. R. *Productivity and Wages*. St. Paul: Macalester College. 1958. 15 pp. In this bulletin productivity, based on output per man-hour, is examined.

WALTON, E. V. and J. D. GRAY. *Agriculture*, No. 11, Vocational and Professional Monographs. Cambridge 38, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Company. 1958. 33 pp. \$1. This monograph is for use in connection with guidance activities wherever general counseling work is conducted and for individual reference purposes in the choice of a career.

What High-School Age Boys Told Us. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office. 1958. 12 pp. The study of adolescent boys which was made by the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan for the Boy Scouts of America.

WILCOX, FRANCIS O. *The United Nations: Challenges of a New Age*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. 1958 (May). 18 pp. 10¢. An address made before the New Hampshire Council on World Affairs at Manchester, New Hampshire, on March 24, 1958. Mr. Wilcox is Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs.

World Conference of Organizations of the Teaching Profession in Frankfurt, A Pictorial Report. Washington 6, D. C.: WCOTP, 1201 Sixteenth Street. 1958. 32 pp. Written in English, French, and German, the booklet describes in text and photographs the Sixth Assembly of Delegates of WCOTP which met August 2-9 with delegates from 66 national organizations and 33 countries. It reflects the international character of its editorial collaborators, its publisher, and the conference it describes. It shows the setting for the Sixth Assembly which had as its theme "The Teacher Shortage: Causes and Remedies."

Yearbook of Railroad Information, 1958 Edition. New York City 6: Eastern Railroad Presidents' Conference, 143 Liberty Street. 1958 (April). 103 pp. A summary of railroad operations for a number of previous years.

You and AASA Going Places Together. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators. 1958. 36 pp. \$1. As a preliminary step towards helping people to become better acquainted with the organization, purposes, and program of AASA, a study guide was prepared in tentative form. Aided by many helpful suggestions received from people who carefully studied and used the materials in tentative form, the guide has been revised and supplemented by supporting materials.

News Notes

NASHVILLE SCHOOLS TRY 2-DIPLOMA PLAN

A double header diploma plan has been approved by the Davidson County, Tennessee, School Board in an attempt to improve school offerings. Under the new diploma system, a student will have the choice of a stiff college preparatory course in which he must earn 18 credits to graduate or a weaker general program calling for 17 credits. The present system requires only 16 credits for graduation. All students now in high school will continue their present general courses and will be graduated when they earn 16 credits. First graduates under the new plan will be the senior classes of 1962. According to Superintendent J. E. Moss, students planning to attend college would have the opportunity to get better preparation in mathematics, science, and languages under the new plan. Their diploma would call for 13 required subjects and five electives. On the other hand, students who select the general 17-credit program will have eight electives (three more than under the present program) and will have nine required credits.—*Education U.S.A.*, May 1958.

MILLION STUDENTS IN HOME STUDY

Over 750,000 new students enrolled in private correspondence schools of the United States last year, according to a report issued by the National Home Study Council. The total active student body numbered over 1,000,000 at year's end. Enrollment was up four per cent over 1956. "Eighty per cent of home study students enroll to get ahead in their jobs or to prepare for new occupations," according to Homer Kempfer, Executive Director of the Council. "The remainder enroll chiefly in academic and hobby courses." Over 20,000 employed adults enrolled in engineering, engineering technology, and architecture. Another 100,000 enrolled in air conditioning, appliance repair, drafting, and the building and mechanical trades. Business subjects enrolled 76,000. Nearly 33,000 more enrolled in accounting. One-fourth of all newly licensed Certified Public Accountants each year have studied by correspondence. For a directory of fifty-three schools meeting professional standards, write the National Home Study Council, 1420 New York Avenue, N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

PROGRESS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

Education in America, a series of three new Coronet films, shows how changes in public education have been largely in response to pressing social and economic problems. This unique motion picture undertaking reveals that as America's needs changed and grew during her 350 years, there were corresponding adjustments in the public educational system.

Each of the 16mm films in the series is 16 minutes in length and available in either color or black-and-white. Designed especially for teacher-education courses, the films are relevant to courses in United States history and to courses in vocational guidance—for those considering the teaching profession.

The films will also convey to PTA groups, civic groups, teachers' meetings, and conventions the extraordinary achievements of more than three centuries of American education.

The first film, *Education in America: The Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries*, vividly pictures educational processes in the schools which gave expression to a religious society in New England and to an aristocratic one in the South.

Education in America: The Nineteenth Century—the second film—discusses trends which grew out of the Northwest Ordinance and the westward movement: the secularization of learning and introduction of American textbooks; the rise and decline of the district school; and the struggle for tax support and state control. A district school and a spelling bee in session illustrate the nineteenth-century view of education as both a necessity and a community recreational activity.

By the end of the nineteenth century, people were largely agreed on the necessity for public schools for all, but the crying need was for a better system and higher standards. The film shows how these were achieved through applications of the visions of such men as Horace Mann and Gideon Hawley, and how the establishing of teacher-training institutions met some of the new problems and pressures. The nineteenth century created other new pressures on the schools, particularly those associated with the Industrial Revolution.

The third film, *Education in America: Twentieth Century Developments*, relates the effects of the continuing industrial revolution and of an educational revolution which instituted new concepts and studies of child education. The appearance of the junior high school and graduate education met the needs of more specialized education and of individuals with varied personal needs. Much legislation enacted during the depression and recent wars—federal aid to education, the GI Bill, increased vocational education—is shown to have substantially changed the character of American education.

These films will develop an objective interest in the history and development of our educational system, and give prospective teachers an appreciation of the heritage of the most important enterprise in America. The films may be purchased from Coronet Films (65 E. South Water Street, Chicago 1, Illinois) for \$150 each in color or \$82.50 in black-and-white and may be rented from major film rental libraries.

ONE IN NINE HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMAS IN L. A. GOES TO ADULT

Approximately 2400 adults received their high-school diplomas from the twenty-six adult schools in the Los Angeles City School System during the past school year. This was a sizable increase over the previous year when 2,019 adults were graduated, out of a total of 18,608 high-school graduates in the Los Angeles City System. It is significant to note that one out of every nine high-school diplomas presented in Los Angeles was in the adult schools.

One of the adult schools surveyed its graduation class of 221 candidates. The youngest was 18 years of age while the oldest was 66. There were 88 single students, 119 married, and 67 veterans. Many of the class had definite plans for the future: 62 planned to attend universities, 42 wanted to go to junior college or business college, and 17 intended to go to a trade school.

LET'S SQUARE DANCE

Let's Square Dance, a series of six motion pictures produced by Indiana University, has been completed with the addition of the last two films, "Texas Star" and "Hooster Promenade." Other titles available are: (1) "Take a Little Peek," (2) "Split the Ring," (3) "Grapevine Twist," and (4) "Forward Up Six." Designed specifically to enable the non-expert to teach square dancing, the series gives a three-way approach. A complete kit of teaching materials, including records with and without calls, and an illustrated manual accompanies the films to simplify teaching. Basic steps and figures are easy to follow through the use of slow motion photography and animated diagrams. The films are arranged in order of progressive difficulty, but each film presents a complete dance and can be used independently. They are particularly useful for grades four through 12. The music and calls are also available on tape.

This series is composed of six 16mm sound motion pictures, black and white and color. It is distributed by the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Following are the prices: series of six films—color \$500; black and white, \$250. Individual titles are available at \$100 for color and \$50 for black and white.

MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIVING

"Teacher Exchange for High School Family Life Educators" is appearing as a new feature in *Marriage and Family Living*, the quarterly journal of the National Council on Family Relations. It provides a medium of communication which makes it possible for teachers to exchange ideas, and find answers to teaching problems through pertinent articles as they seek to educate young people for satisfying family living. It is available in reprint form as a courtesy from the National Council on Family Relations, with the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association. Write National Council on Family Relations, 1219 University Avenue Southeast, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota.

READING AND THE FOURTH R

The Betts Reading Clinic, Publications Department, 257 West Montgomery Avenue, Haverford, Pennsylvania, has available at 50 cents an 8-page reprint, "Reading and the Fourth R" by Dr. Emmett A. Betts. This leaflet, pertaining to grades one to eight, discusses individual differences, testing, signs of difficulty in reading, informal inventories, and grouping for instruction.

REORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The U. S. Office of Education has released a publication entitled *Organizing Districts for Better Schools* (Education Bulletin 1958, No. 9). This is a comprehensive report not only on what has been and is being done, but also on procedures and the outcomes of such reorganizations. Copies may be obtained at 25 cents each from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

CLASSROOM NEEDS

Disproportionate population growths, mounting enrollments, and continued shortages of classrooms will continue to plague the 49 states in their efforts to provide adequate educational facilities for all children. A school-age population growing at almost twice the rate as the total population, 92 per cent

growth in high-school enrollments, and two million children housed in inadequate classrooms are among the most pressing problems.

The classroom shortage in 1956, according to reports sent to the U. S. Office of Education by state superintendents of schools, was 159,000. It was reduced to 142,300 in 1957. About 70,500 classrooms are scheduled to be built this year. However, enrollment increases during the year will create a demand for 45,000 additional rooms, and a minimum of 16,000 will be needed to replace classrooms lost because of obsolescence and disaster. Thus, the classroom shortage this September is 132,800, or only 9,500 less than September 1957. At least 800,000 pupils are on half-day sessions, and the figure seems to be growing all the time.

"Even at the current rate of construction," Dr. Ginger said, "states and local school systems are doing little more than whittle away at the backlog of needed classrooms."

He pointed out, "At the present rate of backlog reduction, many pupils who will enter inadequate and crowded primary-grade classrooms for half-day sessions next fall will have been graduated from high school and will be enrolled in college before the primary-grade rooms to which they have been rightfully entitled are constructed. These intolerable conditions are not restricted to low-income areas or to any one section of the country. The bulging elementary-school classroom is a problem that plagues virtually every major city."

Total population increased by 21.1 per cent between 1946 and 1957, but school-age population (ages 5 through 17) increased by 40.8 per cent (28.6 million to 40.2 million). "Projecting ahead according to Bureau of the Census statistics, the total population will have increased 36.7 per cent between 1946 and 1965; but the school population will have soared 68.3 per cent, to almost 50 million children.

Enrollments in the public elementary schools have risen from 17 million in 1946 to 25 million today, a gain of 43.0 per cent. They will rise another 15.5 per cent by 1965, for a rise of 65.2 per cent over the 20-year period. The corresponding figures for public secondary school enrollments are about 5½ million in 1946 and 6½ million in 1957, an increase of 22.3 per cent. "The bulge is yet to come in the secondary schools," Dr. Ginger warned. "The projected increase from 1957 through 1965 will be 57.3 per cent. *For the 20 year period, high-school enrollments will climb 92.4 per cent.* In 1965 our nation will have almost 11 million students in public high schools alone. The cost of building high-school classrooms for these students will be considerably greater than the cost of building elementary-school classrooms for them."—*News from the National Education Association*, May 8, 1958.

THE CONSTITUTION AND EMPLOYMENT STANDARDS

A 28-minute documentary, 16 mm sound, black and white motion picture is available for distribution by NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Purchase price, \$125 This film, entitled *The Constitution and Employment Standards*, is a documentary film showing the constitution in action. In re-creating the case of *United States v. Darby Lumber Company*, which sustained the wage-and-hour provision of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, actual location and persons involved

are used. The film emphasizes constitutional standards and their shifting interpretation used by the Supreme Court in judging the constitutionality of labor legislation. A review of the legal, social, and economic background of the Fair Labor Standards Act aids in understanding the role of Supreme Court decision-making in our governmental system. The mature approach of the film makes it suitable for high school, college and adult groups.

SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS

About 230,000 scientists and engineers—military and civilian—were employed in the conduct of research and development in the natural sciences (including engineering) in 1954 by the wide range of organizations covered in the National Science Foundation surveys of research and development. These scientists and engineers were engaged (with the aid of supporting personnel) in research and development activities involving the expenditure of approximately \$5.4 billion.—*Reviews of Data on Research and Development*, February 1958.

TV IN EDUCATION

Television is bridging several gaps in the Nation's educational services, a new publication of the Office of Education points out in reviewing the potential of television as an instructional tool for the teacher. The illustrated booklet, entitled *Television in Education*, reports advances in education-by-television through 1957. It discusses the development of TV teaching; the use of television in classrooms, studios, and homes; and community plans for educational television projects. It also analyzes educational programs of commercial and non-commercial stations and recommends programs for elementary, junior high- and senior high-school levels. Charts of classrooms seating arrangements and plans for closed-circuit engineering also are included. Copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C., at 55 cents each

EDUCATION U. S. A.

EDUCATION U. S. A., the new airmail weekly report on educational affairs, presents information on significant developments in the nation's school system. It reports national trends that are useful to school administrators and board members around the country as they proceed with the reappraisal of American schools and colleges, which is now under way in thousands of communities. It is published in Washington each Tuesday to reach your desk via airmail each Wednesday. It contains information about the latest developments in education the same week the news breaks throughout the country. It is published jointly by the National School Public Relations Association and the Division of Press and Radio Relations of the National Education Association. The regular annual rate is \$15, but you can "try out" EDUCATION U. S. A. for 17 issues for only \$4—time enough for you to see how valuable it will be to you and your associates. Send your order to the National School Public Relations Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Washington 6, D. C.

UNSPONSORED SOCIAL CLUBS VIOLATE STATE LAW

The April 1958 issue of *Here's Your High School*, published by The Evanston Township High School District of Evanston, Illinois, contains a notice to parents and others about students forming social clubs on their

own without sponsorship of any recognized organization such as the YMCA YWCA, community centers, or churches. Since membership in such groups is forbidden by action of the Board of Education and by state law, parents were made aware of the illegal status of these groups and of the penalties involved if students were found to be members.

The reasons such organizations are illegal, according to the Illinois School Code, Article 31, page 223, 1945, is that any public school fraternity, sorority, or secret society is "inimical to the public good." The school believes there are plenty of legitimately organized and *sponsored* youth groups to interest ETHS pupils and that unauthorized and unsponsored social clubs are detrimental to the school and community and certainly to the pupils themselves. Violation of this law means suspension from ETHS and a fine of "not less than \$25 nor more than \$100."

IDENTIFYING THE GIFTED

More is now known about the identification and education of gifted children than we put into practice. To help "our doings catch up with our knowings," The American Association for Gifted Children has prepared four short, easy-to-read leaflets. The *first*, to give, in groups or individually, to gifted young people themselves who need to be motivated to develop their potentialities; the *second*, to help parents of gifted children acquire a sound, practical point of view toward giftedness in their children; the *third*, for teachers, who will make better provisions for gifted children when they know how; and the *fourth*, to assist administrators in providing programs for the gifted appropriate for their schools. These four leaflets are entitled: *Guideposts for the Gifted Children Themselves*; *Guideposts for Parents of Gifted Children*; *Guideposts for Teachers of Gifted Children*; *Guideposts for Administrators*.

SCHOLARSHIP QUALIFYING TEST

The third annual Scholastic Qualifying Test of the College Entrance Board will be given on Tuesday, October 21, 1958. This will be a two-hour college aptitude test for use in scholarship selection, and school guidance program. This test will be given at all secondary schools choosing to participate. The National Honor Society scholarship candidates will again participate in this examination.

NATIONAL YEARBOOK

The principal of the Newington Senior High School of Newington, Connecticut, Charles A. Bowes, has prepared a 12-page mimeographed pamphlet which provides information on compiling the yearbook. This little booklet is sent to each of the parents of the students in the high school for the purpose of acquainting parents and pupils with the philosophy and practices followed in bringing together the materials that make up the content of the yearbook of seniors. Included are the names of the students on the editorial staff and also the steps taken as the yearbook progresses to completion. —*Newington Senior High School*, June 30, 1958.

U. S. VS. EUROPEAN EDUCATION

An article, "Are European Schools Better than Ours?" in the June issue of *Changing Times*, the *Kiplinger Magazine*, declares that higher education in Europe affects so few that the only fair comparison would be "with our

bright students, the ones, say, who attend our best colleges or make honor societies." In such a comparison, says the article, "our youngsters stack up pretty well." At age 16, 70 per cent of United States youth are in school as compared with only 20 per cent in Europe; between 18-20 years, about one fourth of American youngsters are in school as compared with less than one tenth in Europe. The article points out that our colleges enjoy an excellent world-wide reputation and attract more foreign students than are enrolled in Western European schools.—*Trends in School Public Relations*, July 11, 1958.

SCIENCE FILMS TO AID HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

A series of unique science demonstration films has been made available to high schools through a private grant. Purpose of the color films, none of which exceed four minutes, is to provide a ready library of complex, costly, or time-consuming demonstrations to supplement high-school science courses. The films are especially suited to schools whose demonstration facilities are limited by inadequate budgets. Producer of the films is Professor Jonathan Karas of the University of New Hampshire. Karas criticized many standard 30 minute films as implying the teacher had told the students nothing. What is sorely needed he added are short films to supplement lacking demonstration equipment. These films include "The Van de Graaff Generator"; "Preparation of Hydrogen"; "Air Pressure"; "Surface Tension"; and "Radiant Heat." The films are available through the MVR Scientific Evaluation Group of Durham, New Hampshire.

HAVE YOU READ?

"Is Russia Really Out-Producing Us in Scientists?" by Robert J. Havighurst, *School and Society*, April 26, 1958, pp. 187-91.

"The All-Year School, Pro and Con" by William J. Fitzpartick. *School and Society*, April 26, 1958, pp. 191-92.

"Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores of CEB Member Schools" by John F. Gummere. *School and Society*, April 26, 1958, pp. 197-98.

"Block-Time or Core Practices in Minnesota Secondary Schools" by N. L. Bossing and J. F. Kaufman, *Clearing House*, May 1958, pp. 132-37.

"Straight and Crooked Thinking" by R. R. Palmer, *Clearing House*, May 1958, pp. 542-46.

"The Spirit of American Education" by George Counts, *Teachers College Record*, May 1958, pp. 450-59.

"Dealing with Problem Youth" by Robert J. Havighurst, *The Nation's School*, May 1958, pp. 43-45.

"Mechanized Equipment as Practical and Necessary" by S. C. Joyner. May 1958, pp. 69-84.

"The New Mathematics." *Fortune*, June 1958, Never before have mathematicians been coming up with so many new ideas—or pushing abstraction so far beyond physical reality. From their new theories, however, may come great breakthroughs in all sciences. First of two articles.

"Spring and Summer Care of Your School Grounds" by J. W. Gates. *School Management*, May 1958, pp. 53-56.

"One Way To Solve Your School's Classroom and Teacher Shortage," *School Management*, May 1958, pp. 36-37, 74.

"Single Story Vs. Multi-Story—Which Is Cheaper?" *School Management*, May 1958. pp. 27-34.

"How To Stop School Vandalism," *School Management*, May 1958, pp. 45-46. A survey of what 22 Harris County, Texas, school districts are doing.

"Care of Your School Grounds" by J. W. Gates, *School Management*, May 1958, pp. 53-56.

"Seven Keys to Evaluating Teacher Competence" by Carl H. Peterson, *School Board Journal*, May 1958, pp. 34-36.

"The Commencement Address" by Ralph N. Schmidt, *School Board Journal*, May 1958, p. 58.

"How To Cost-Account Your Cafeteria" by James E. Coleman, *School Management*, June 1958, pp. 26-28.

"Report Cards That Tell the Whole Story," *School Management*, June 1958, pp. 42-43.

"U. S. Schools Outproducing Russia's," *School Management*, June 1958, p. 12.

"How Much Should a District Charge for Community Use of the Schools?" *School Management*, pp. 48-51. How three districts charge: Billings, Montana; Albuquerque, New Mexico; Denver, Colorado.

"Four-Diploma Program Stiffens Graduation Requirements for All-Students Is Tough on College Prep Group," *Nation's Schools*, April 1958, pp. 116-17. Indianapolis, Indiana, issues four high-school diplomas—academic, fine and practical arts, vocational, and general. All diplomas lead to college, but some students may have to take extra subjects to qualify for entrance.

"How San Angelo Meets the Needs of Both 'Fast' and 'Slow' Students," *School Management*, April 1958, pp. 59-69. A tape-recorded interview with Superintendent G. B. Wadzeck.

"Getting Into College," *School Management*, April 1958, p. 13.

"How To Help Your Graduates Get Into College," *School Management*, April 1958, pp. 31-35, 74-76. A tape-recorded interview.

"Control of Behavior Through Motivation and Reward—a Symposium," *The American Psychologist*, March 1958, pp. 93-108.

SOME ZIP

The 1958 American Education Week (AEW) poster uses a chuckle to get across its public relations message. It's a cartoon with "Keep Up With The Kids" as the headline. A full-grown man squats red-faced at a small elementary classroom desk, blushing as he fumbles with an algebra problem which a pony-tailed student dashes off on the blackboard. Same illustration will be used as an AEW stamp. Other refreshing new AEW items will include a lapel card (sad-faced little man sitting on a fence. The head: "Don't just sit there—Do something to improve your schools. Visit them during AEW.") A 32-page *Spakers' Digest* for writers, speakers, and broadcasters will include specific information on curriculum experiments, guidance programs, working with the gifted, up-to-date reference statistics, etc. These, and other AEW materials, may be ordered from American Education Week, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.—*Trends in School Public Relations*, July 11, 1958.

IMPROVED READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

In fields such as science and mathematics, there is evidence that pupils who have learned to read slowly and carefully achieve more than fast readers, according to Arthur E. Traxler, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau. Dr. Traxler's comments are contained in a U. S. Office of Education publication, "Improving Reading in the Junior High School." He also observes that all pupils would benefit if they were taught to vary their reading speed according to the difficulty of the material and their purpose in reading. Children should be taught early in their school career to make such adjustments, he says.

This publication on improving reading skills is a report of a conference of reading authorities called by the Office of Education. This was the first conference of its type in the history of the Office. The 165-page publication was prepared by Dr. Jewett. Copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. at 60 cents each.

SCIENCE EQUIPMENT POOL FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Hofstra College has announced the formation of a unique central library of scientific and engineering equipment for loan to neighboring colleges and high schools for educating future scientists. The Hofstra scientific equipment pool, believed to be the first of its kind, will make available to educational institutions certain research and test apparatus needed in advanced science studies. Colleges and high schools on Long Island, N. Y., will be able to borrow and use the library's scientific equipment. The grant to Hofstra is part of a special three-year program under which the Esso Education Foundation will disburse \$1,500,000 in grants for the specific purpose of enhancing science and engineering education throughout the United States. It was initiated in 1957 when Jersey Standard awarded the special fund to the Foundation in observance of the company's 75th anniversary.—*News Bureau*, Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York, June 6, 1958.

MAJOR BREAK-THROUGH IN TEACHERS' SALARIES

Education cannot fully serve the national interest until teachers' salaries reach professional levels, and federal support is the only hope for a major break-through in this economic plight of the public schools. Dr. Corma Mowrey, member of the National Education Association board of trustees and director of professional services for the West Virginia Education Association states: "At a minimum, teachers' salaries should be 50 per cent higher than the average payroll worker." Projecting this advance on the basis of recent trends would raise teachers to an average salary of \$7,550 in four years," Dr. Mowrey called for three definite steps: Higher starting salaries, greater recognition of advanced college preparation, and faster and longer advancement in salaries.

"Although in the past Congress has refused to provide financial support," Dr. Mowrey stated, "the schools have been subsidized by the teachers themselves. Teachers have given professional service but have not received professional salaries. They have kept the schools open and functioning even when paid less than laboring wages. The National Education Association firmly believes that teaching of the quality demanded of the public schools

requires a truly professional status for teachers." She said, "The answer to the question of how much teachers should be paid does not turn on problems of teacher welfare but of national welfare."

Today's national average salary of all public school teachers is \$4,650, but the average salary of the entire teaching staff in eight states is less than \$3,500. These states are Arkansas, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota.

Qualified teachers are still in strong demand in the wealthier states, despite higher salary schedules. In the country as a whole, 7 per cent of the teachers have emergency certificates; in New Jersey this year it is 12 per cent. The median starting salaries for 1957 bachelors degree graduates were \$5,220 for chemists and \$5,520 for chemical engineers. The national median for beginning teachers was \$3,450 with the figure below \$2,000 in some states. Teacher salary schedules must also be restructured to allow at least a doubling of minimums within 8 to 10 years. Boards of education will also have to give greater recognition to the value of advanced degrees. An industrial employer places higher premium on master's and doctor's degrees than the typical school board.—*News from the National Education Association*, May 1, 1958.

NEW GUIDE TO BOSTON'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Recently a 30 page pamphlet was published by the staff of the Department of Vocational Guidance with the cooperation of the Head Masters and Guidance Counselors in the schools. The boys and girls in the junior high schools in cooperation with their parents will use this pamphlet, which has information about the opportunities and offerings of the Boston High Schools, as a guide to the choice of a secondary school. A directory of the eighteen Boston Public High and Latin Schools is also included. This includes the name of the schools, its address, name of Head Master, district served, length of course, curricula offered, special offerings, extra curricula activities, admission requirements, public transportation necessary and the school hours.

All the curricula offered in the various secondary schools is thoroughly explained: College Preparatory, General, Business Education, Industrial Arts, Cooperative Industrial, and Vocational Trade courses with the required subjects and electives offered in each program.

Boys and girls entering high school are asked to select that curriculum which will best prepare them for that goal, professional or vocational, which they have chosen for themselves. Their parents are also appraised of the offerings and are requested to sign a slip, which is in the pamphlet, showing that they have received it.—*Boston Guidance News*, Boston Public Schools, June 1958.

WHAT WE GET FROM FOREST LAND

This poster (28" x 40"), in color, is a new conservation teaching aid released by the Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. This chart, entitled "What We Get From Forest Land," emphasizes the multiple-use principle of management of forest lands. It is a companion to "What We Get From Trees," previously released. Teachers may obtain a single copy free from the Forest Service, Washington 25, D. C., or from other Forest Service offices. Quantity lots for pupil or student are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at 20¢ per copy. This

chart is also available free to teachers from the Forest Service in quarter-size black and white.

DRIVING ACCIDENTS UP 18 PER CENT

The toll of fatal and bodily injury accidents as well as property damage accidents last year reached the staggering total of 11,700,000, 18 per cent over the figure for only five years ago. In this tragic sum, 1,856,000 men, women, and children suffered personal injuries, a greater number than the combined populations of Delaware, Nevada, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Wyoming. That's more casualties in a single year than our armed services suffered during all years of World War I and World War II—close to half a million more. Every weekend was a catastrophe in 1957, accounting for almost half the disasters, as death struck every nine minutes and every 12 seconds someone suffered injury.

The total dollar cost of the nation's 1957 traffic accidents passed the \$7,250,000,000 mark—just to pay for property damage, legal, medical, surgical, and hospital costs and loss of income from absence from work. That's equivalent to a bill for \$42.23 to be paid by every man, woman and child in the nation. If the present trend continues, one out of every two drivers will be involved in a personal injury accident during his lifetime.

A STUDY OF ADOLESCENTS BOYS

The Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, New Jersey, has prepared a 17-page, mimeograph summary of a study of adolescent boys. This is a report of a national survey of boys in the fourteen to sixteen years age group. This summary is entitled "Highlight Summary of Findings and Interpretations." The total amount of information gathered in the study is voluminous. The purpose of this pamphlet is to present the major findings sifted and condensed in order to make the results available for continuing study. It will be information for those who lack the time to absorb the larger and more technical report of the study.

The study was undertaken to assess the primary needs, concerns, and interests of adolescent boys. Among the specific questions answered are the following: (1) What are the dominant needs, problems, and concerns of 14-16 year old boys? (2) How much leisure time do boys have? What non-leisure demands do they have on their time? (3) What are boys' principal leisure activities? What do they most like to do? (4) How important a part do voluntary group memberships play in boys' lives? (5) What are the sources of motivation for joining groups? Who are the boys who do not join and (6) What *kinds* of groups are most attractive to boys?

HANDBOOK FOR NEW TEACHERS

The East Syracuse High School in East Syracuse, New York, prepared a 25-page dittoed booklet under the title of *A New Assignment at East Syracuse High School* for use as supplementary material in the orientation program for new teachers on the high-school faculty. Included is a foreword by the principal, a message from the superintendent, an organization chart, outline map of the city, local organizations, history of city, and numerous helpful suggestions. Preceding the writing of this booklet, a group of teachers—both experienced and beginning—and administrators gave careful consideration of what areas should be included.

PARENT HANDBOOK

The Santa Monica Senior High School, 601 Pico Boulevard, Santa Monica, California, prepares a *Parent Handbook* each year for distribution to the parents of the students in the high school. The booklet is 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ " wide x 8" high and contains twelve pages. Each is shorter than the one immediately beneath it by a half inch. In general, the exposed part of each page and the back of the previous page contains the contents of that page. The areas included are foreword, staff, data, class schedule, calendar of events, parents' participation, PTA program, alumni, transportation, attendance, citizenship, lost and found, counseling, choosing a vocation, graduation requirements, college, summer school, scholarships, testing examinations, grades, military, student government, eligibility, clubs, and index.

A STATEMENT OF POSITION AND BELIEF

The California Association of Secondary-School Administrators, 2220 Bancroft Way, Berkeley 4, California, has prepared an attractive 6-page booklet (5" x 7") entitled *The Secondary School*. Each page is devoted to one of the following topics: Ideal, Belief, Reality, Need, Objective, and Challenge. Six areas are listed on the Objective page: (1) A sound academic program for students with all levels of ability; (2) A strong program of occupational and technical training; (3) Adequate opportunities for cultural development; (4) Special programs for the gifted, the retarded, the physically handicapped, and the emotionally disturbed; (5) A guidance program involving comprehensive testing; (6) An extensive citizenship training program which will include active extracurricular experiences designed to further prepare young people for creative living, and to promote leadership and statesmanship; and (7) The instillation of fundamental beliefs in our American Way of Life.

AIDS FOR CHEMISTRY TEACHING

Manufacturing Chemists' Association, Inc., 1625 Eye Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. is making available for use this fall two 15-minute sound and color motion pictures on "Combustion" and "Chlorine—A Representative Halogen." Supplementing the Association's senior high-school scientific experiments, these films present experiments which cannot be executed practically in the school laboratory. They also incorporate industrial and everyday applications of the principles involved. The new productions were recommended by experts in the field as being among the most needed and useful contributions that could be made in this area. Throughout the films' preparation, educators have given assistance. At a recent review of the workprints by the consultants, the general enthusiasm was expressed by one who stated: "I haven't seen anything like them for getting student attention, for their technical excellence, and for their usefulness in the classroom."

THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE IN 1960

Every ten years during this century there has been a White House Conference concerned with the Nation's children and youth. The first such conference, called by President Theodore Roosevelt, was held in 1909. These conferences have contributed much to our present recognition of the importance of children and youth and their full development to our national future. The

President of the United States has directed that a sixth White House Conference on Children and Youth be held in March 1960. He stated in a letter to The United States Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare: "The rapidly changing times in which we live, and the increasingly fast pace of change, make it incumbent upon us to do everything we can to plan ahead and to see that we prepare today's children well for life in tomorrow's world.

"I should like the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to take the lead in the preparatory work for this conference. It is my desire that all private and public groups and organizations concerned with this field have maximum opportunity to participate. The main responsibility for public action in this area must, of course, rest with the states and local governments." Selection of the theme of the conference, as well as the responsibility for its direction, will be in the hands of a national advisory committee appointed by the President.

MOTIVATION FOR COLLEGE TO BE STUDIED BY NCA

Plans to identify and motivate more talented high-school students to attend college have been announced by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The program will be financed by a grant of \$174,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. It was launched this summer with a series of workshops for high-school administrators and counselors.

Dr. Clyde Vroman, University director of admissions, is chairman of the NCA's Committee on Articulation of High Schools and Colleges, and will also be chairman of the workshops on the Michigan campus. In explaining the new plan, Dr. Vroman pointed out that "methods designed to identify students who should go to college have little effect unless they are followed up by action to guide and motivate students in the right direction.

From 50 to 74 schools in the 19 states included in the North Central Association were selected to participate in the five pilot workshops this summer. They are schools which already had shown "high interest" in this kind of activity, and which were willing to send a team of an administrator and counselor to a workshop this past summer and next; which have assigned personnel needed to ensure an effective trial of the new program; and which have agreed to carry on the pilot program for two years, providing such information as may be needed.—*Letter to Schools from The University of Michigan*, May 1958.

THIS PROBLEM OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

"Failure to grow up successfully is the cause for maladjustments and delinquency in our youth of today," Robert J. Havighurst, University of Chicago professor of education, states in the May 1958 issue of *The Nation's Schools*. In his article, Dr. Havighurst points to the fact that the larger percentage of these youth are slow learners who are getting educations not adapted to their needs. Because of our social set-up the pathways to adulthood for the 14- to 16-year age group are blocked. "During the waiting period until society is willing to acknowledge their readiness for adulthood, these early adolescents are condemned either to a life of seeking after excitement . . . or to a life of apathy," Dr. Havighurst continues. School is the only outlet for youngsters in this age group. A slow learner with failures in school has no other way to turn except delinquency to prove his or her worth.

Dr. Havighurst feels strongly that a revision of school curricula and a good look at our child labor laws could very well aid in the prevention of social problems existent today. "In the junior high-school years, he says, "there should be instituted a specialized program for slow learners graded to their ability level, a program that gives a reasonably clear pathway for growth. For these boys and girls work experience is essential as they can get a feeling of successful growing up by earning money . . . Schools should undertake a patient and persistent program of finding jobs for these children and supervising their work."

"School administrators and boards can aid this program," Dr. Havighurst continues, "by supplying funds for good teachers, equipment, and skillful counseling." Society "can examine existing child labor laws to find out whether they may not be unnecessarily limiting the opportunities for boys and girls over 14 to get wholesome work experience." And, rather than the expense of delinquency, Dr. Havighurst concludes, "How much cheaper in comparison would be a preventative program such as the public schools can put on through a simplified academic program for slow learners."

MATH TEACHERS WARN AGAINST CRASH PROGRAM

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics states that college and university professors must stop pointing accusing fingers at high-school math and start cooperating if math instruction is to get the facelifting that it needs. Too much time is being spent in the schools today on topics which "are no longer in the mainstream of current mathematical thought," the Council says in an 8-page statement of policy, *As We See It*. The Council is a department of the National Education Association (NEA).

"There is little interest today in such things as detailed logarithmic computations and proofs of many solid geometry theorems," the Council says. "Interest (should be) now focused, among other things, on algebra as the study of deductive systems, on the mathematics of uncertainty, and on the exciting new use of the subject in such fields as the social sciences, industry, and the national defense." Math must not be taught as "a collection of memorized techniques," either. Teachers in both schools and colleges need to stress the logic of the system of mathematics to do this.

In calling on universities to take more responsibility in improving math instruction, the Council said, "There is a critical need that universities, as well as the public schools recognize the problems residing within their own walls." Universities need to turn a critical eye toward their own teaching of math, the Council suggests. "The failure of the universities to produce a reform at the lower levels of graduate and undergraduate instruction may be a major factor in retarding the improvement of secondary and elementary-school programs," the publication states. "No teacher can be prepared to teach the new mathematics program in the high schools until college mathematics departments revise their offerings."

The Council also came out against crash programs to upgrade math teaching, stating that "the science of mathematics requires a logical structure both within itself and in relation to other fields of study." Crash programs, however, "usually consist of acceleration and omission with no consideration given to the fundamental principles which brought out the need for change."

COMPLETELY NEW BUSINESS MATH TEXTS

Business Mathematics, Principles and Practice

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To improve math instruction right now—without a crash program—the Council called for more experimentation within today's classes. Teachers now can provide: (a) Grouping of students in classes on the basis of their ability; (b) Special instruction for exceptional students; (c) New content; and (d) More unified presentation of math as a logical system. High schools must offer a four- or five-year math program, the Council stated. And all college-bound students—regardless of their major—should take a minimum of three years of math. "High-school youth must not be handicapped because of lack of preparation for unanticipated mathematical needs," the Council stated.

SCHOOL FINANCE

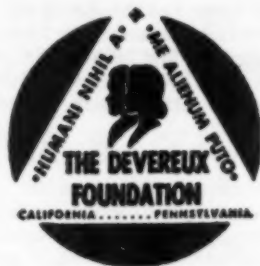
Most States give state superintendents of schools broad authority in school finance matters, a new publication of the U. S. Office of Education points out. The report, entitled *School Finance and School Business Management*, is the result of a study made in cooperation with the Council of Chief State School Officers. It is one of a series on the responsibilities and services of state departments of education. The report deals with methods of expending school funds; planning programs and operations; collecting and disseminating information; school budgeting, accounting, and auditing; managing retirement programs; conducting research; providing consultation on financing schools; and related State functions. The publication was prepared by Clayton D. Hutchins, Chief, and Albert R. Munse and Edna D. Booher, research assistants, School Finance Section. Copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., at 60 cents each.

FILMSTRIPS FOR TEACHING

The Educational Productions, Limited, 17 Denbigh Street, London, S.W. 1, England, are producers of educational filmstrips, film loops, books, and wall charts. Two filmstrips sent for review purposes were *Nigeria* and the *Blind Man Who Saw Jesus*. *Nigeria* is composed of 35 frames showing various phases of everyday life in Nigeria, such as an Afon village single house and a house compound, Muslims at prayer, agricultural enterprises, the blacksmith, the carpenter, construction work, basket making, dye making, a market scene and a school yard. Each filmstrip is available at \$5 from the address above. The filmstrips are remarkable for photography and brilliance in color as well as the features presented and the explanatory notes which accompany each filmstrip.

SPECIAL MATERIALS ON ALCOHOL AND ADOLESCENTS

Allied Youth, Inc., specializing in scientific alcohol education for teenagers has announced its special 1958-59 school-year program and materials schedule. "Both the materials and the schedule are designed to present the teenagers in schools and communities throughout the United States a uniform program on various aspects of *Alcohol and Adolescents*," Raymond C. Lewis, Allied Youth Executive Director, states. Each month revolves around a different subject with an impartial, national organization acting as the sponsoring group providing discussion leaders and speakers. Already enlisted are the American Medical Association and the American Automobile Association. Negotiations with others are currently in process. Special Allied Youth publications for each month are also planned beginning with the second issue of *Alcofax*, de-



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voted to the subject of "Drinking and the Adolescent Driver," Individuals or organizations desiring more information about these activities and how they can participate in the programs are requested to write to: Programming Department, Allied Youth, Inc., 1709 M Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. A free introductory packet on Allied Youth, including an up-to-date price list, is also available.

THE TASK AHEAD

Education has been subject to much criticism in recent months. Much of the discussion has missed the point—it has tended to confuse our people—rather than to help them grapple with the major issues we must face. The very fact that modern warfare would make the future hopeless gives us back our freedom of action. We have no choice. Whoever and wherever we are, to the best of our abilities—we must do what we can and what needs to be done so that mankind can live together. We have nothing to lose—except everything. We must go forward. If we fail, it will be better to have taken our stand on the side of those who want to live, rather than with those who want to destroy. It is better for us, now, to take our position with those who would enrich and invigorate our schools, rather than with those who would hobble restrict, or reverse these important agencies for human progress.—College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN OUR SCHOOLS

The American school system should provide a 10-year program of foreign language study beginning with the third grade and extending through high school. This was among the proposals advanced at a 3-day conference sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education to explore ways to improve the teaching of foreign languages in the high school. Results of the conference, attended by nearly 50 foreign language specialists, are summarized in a 166-page report released by the Office of Education. The report notes that:

—Most students study a foreign language only two years, whereas learning another tongue—like learning to play a musical instrument—requires long and continuous practice.

—Russian now is taught in about a dozen American schools, but many other high schools plan to add such courses soon.

—Most American high schools now offer only Spanish, French, German, and a scattering of other West European languages.

—It is important to learn to speak a language before reading and writing it.

—Language laboratory facilities should be as much a part of the high-school equipment as home economics facilities, the science laboratory, and the typing room.

—Language libraries, featuring foreign publications and tape recordings, also are needed.

—The effectiveness of superior teachers should be extended through closed-circuit television or other means.

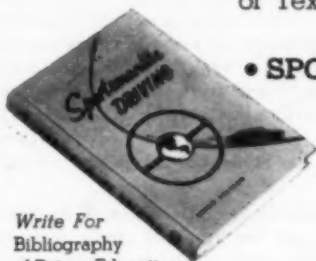
—State consultants or coordinators in foreign languages are needed.

—Professional help in foreign language instruction in the smaller schools is entirely lacking in most states, and only about two dozen city school systems are known to have foreign language supervisors.

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The conference was planned by Marjorie C. Johnston, specialist for foreign languages, Office of Education. Copies of the report may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at one dollar a copy.

STUDY ABROAD

Teachers in elementary and secondary schools throughout the United States will have a opportunity to continue their own studies in any of 43 foreign countries during 1959-60 under the International Educational Exchange Program of the U. S. Department of State. Recipients of awards under the Fulbright Act for study in Europe, Latin America, and the Asia-Pacific area will receive tuition, maintenance, and travel to and from the country of their choice. The Institute of International Education is receiving applications for those scholarships until November 1, 1958. The awards will provide approximately 1,000 opportunities for Americans to study abroad in an unlimited number of fields.

General eligibility requirements are United States citizenship, a Bachelor's degree, language ability sufficient to carry on the proposed study, and good health. A demonstrated capacity for independent study is also necessary. Preference is given to applicants under 35 years of age, though older applicants will be considered. Applicants will be asked for a statement of their reasons for desiring to study abroad and for a preliminary plan of their proposed study. Studies should be related to the applicant's major field since the subject matter of education can be studied only in a limited number of countries.

Persons interested in the scholarship awards should write to the Institute of International Education (1 East 67th Street, New York 21, N. Y.) or to any of the Institute's regional offices for further information and application forms. Competitions for the 1959-60 academic year close November 1, 1958. Requests for application forms must be postmarked before October 15. Completed forms must be submitted by November 1.

"PRINCIPAL OF THE YEAR" AWARD

A "Principal of the Year" award, honoring American school principals, will be presented by Arthur C. Croft Publications, producer of *The Teacher's Letter*, *Education Summary*, and other professional in-service materials for educators. The Croft Publications (a division of Vision, Incorporated) is inviting nominations from classroom teachers only. Nominating statements of at least 500 and not more than 1,000 words will be accepted through November 1. The winning "Principal of the Year" will be announced in January 1959.

Explaining award plans, John Escher, Croft publisher, said that each nominating statement should describe and illustrate what qualities make the designated principal worthy to be considered nation-wide "principal of the year" in the eyes of the nominating teacher or teachers. The winner will be a dedicated professional. He will be judged on the basis of what he has done and is doing for his school, his teachers, his pupils, his educational program, and his school community.

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sented at a testimonial dinner for the principal and for the teacher or teachers who nominated him. The dinner will be given in the principal's community or in the immediate area. The name of the winner will be announced to the press and publicized throughout the country. The nominating statement will be printed in full in *The Principal's Letter*, a semimonthly publication distributed to school principals.

All nominations will be screened by the editorial staff of the company. Final selection will be made by a panel of judges chosen from leaders of the profession. A number of honorable-mention awards will also be made. Teachers wishing to enter nominations for "Principal of the Year" should write for details and contest rules to D. W. Craig, Editor, *The Principal's Service*, Arthur C. Croft Publications, 100 Garfield Avenue, New London, Connecticut.

WORKING WIVES

About 28 per cent of all married couples were working in the spring of 1957, according to a recent report by the U. S. Bureau of the Census. This represents an increase from the end of World War II, when the proportion was 20 per cent. The majority of wives, however, are still full-time homemakers. For some 63 per cent of married couples, the husband was a worker and the wife a full-time homemaker. The remaining couples were chiefly older people who were not working. The report shows that wives were more likely to work: when the husband was unemployed; when his income was under \$4,000 a year; or when there were no children under 18 years of age in the home. Mothers of children under 6 years of age were only about one half as likely to be working as other married women.—*Facts*, Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C., June 1958.

THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

A preliminary report on a two-year study of the American high school was given by Dr. James B. Conant, President Emeritus of Harvard University and recently U. S. Ambassador to West Germany. Dr. Conant reported he has found that—with some reservations—there are high schools which are providing some real intellectual nourishment to the academically talented. He defined this group as the 15 to 20 per cent of the high-school population (on a national basis) who can really profit from tough courses in mathematics, science, and foreign languages. In a group of fourteen high schools, Dr. Conant found three schools in which more than 90 per cent of the academically talented boys in last year's graduating class had taken four years of mathematics. In seven schools, over 75 per cent of the academically talented boys took four years of math, and in all the schools at least a half had taken the full four years. However, in not even one school has as many as half of the academically talented girls elected four years of mathematics.

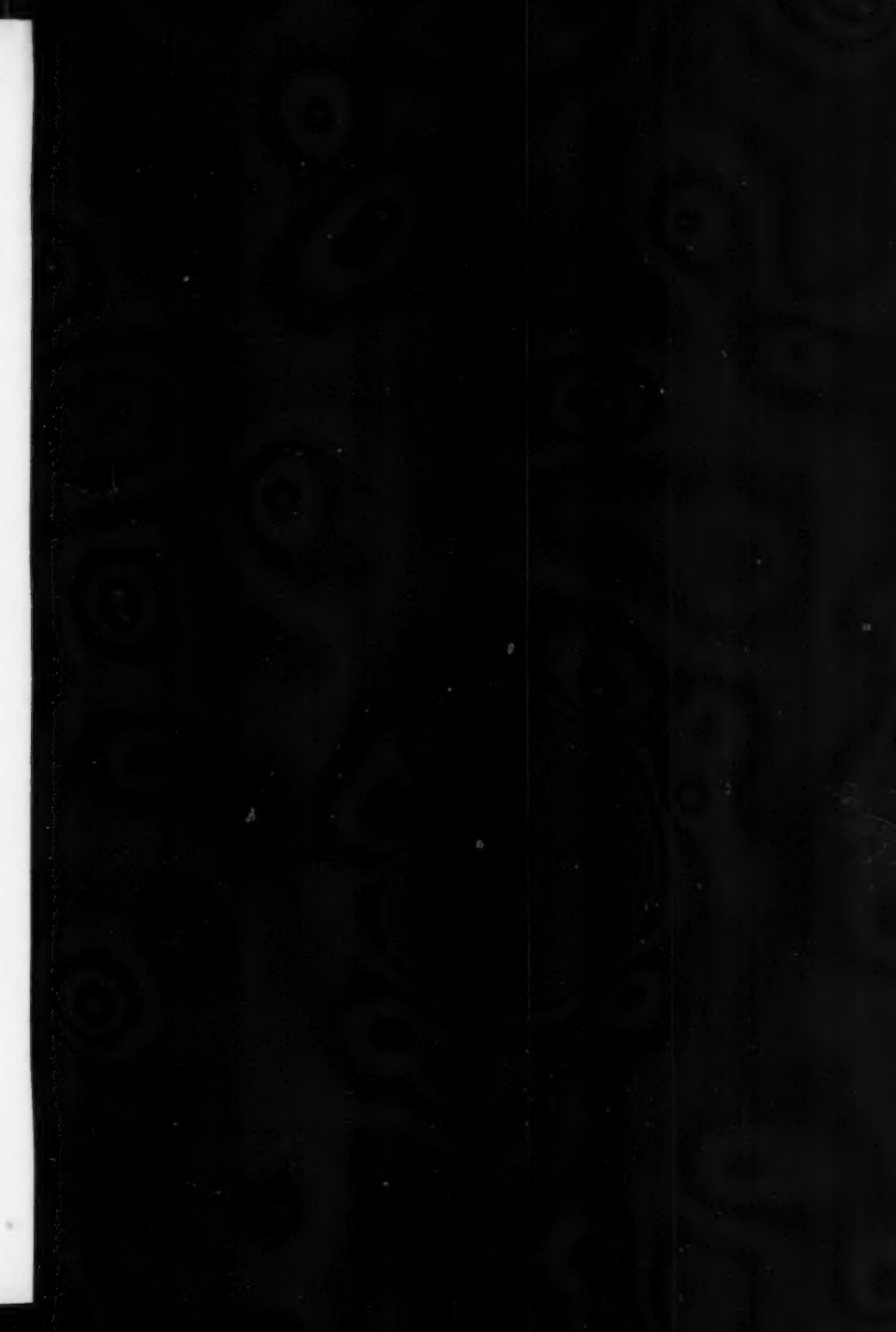
"I am sure the nation is losing many good science and mathematics teachers because of the many able girls who are now choosing soft programs in many high schools—that is, soft for them," Dr. Conant declared. Without radically changing the American public school system, Dr. Conant said, that it would be possible for a sizeable majority of the academically talented youth in many of our comprehensive high schools to take tough programs. It does require, he added, a first-rate guidance system, well staffed with skillful counselors.—*Education Fact Sheet*, U. S. Office of Education, June 1958.

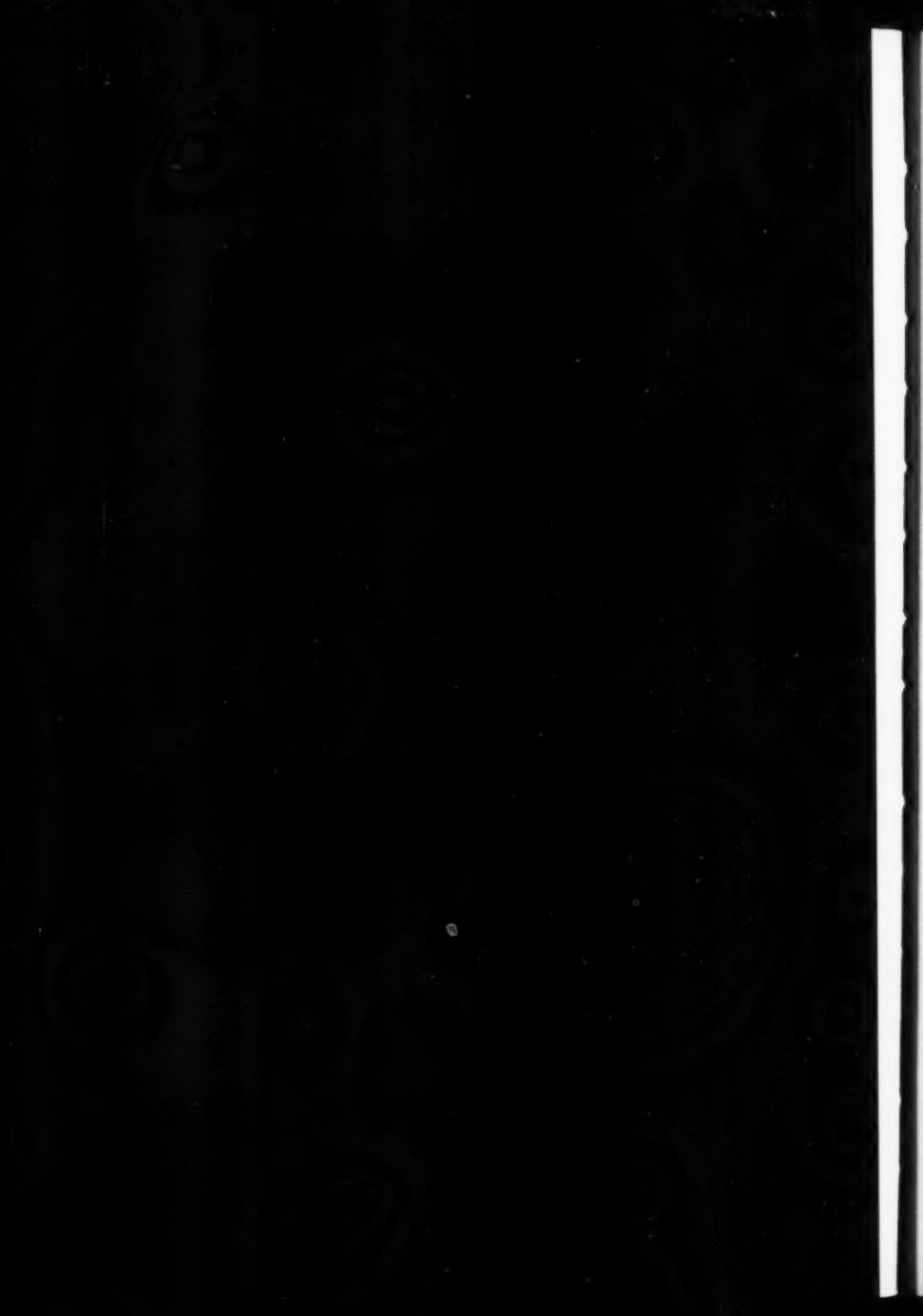
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